The Nation.

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The Week.

Representative John Sharp Williams has so many times shown himself a master of the tariff question that it was no surprise to see him rise and rend the Republicans in the House on Friday. In addition to a thorough grounding in economic principle, Mr. Williams has a large practical knowledge, which makes him a peculiarly ugly customer for the standpatters to wake up. Moreover, he has the fine consistency which leads him to denounce tariff plunder even when it seems to be flowing towards his own pocket. Hence the discomfiture of those who sought to trap him by asking him if he, himself a cotton planter, was not in favor of a protective tariff on his own product. "Why should I want to rob carpenters and bricklayers and blacksmiths," asked Mr. Williams, "by making them pay an artificial price for my cotton?" This is a much stronger position than that taken by Senator Tillman when he admitted that the tariff was but so much stealing, but declared that, so long as it was going on, he was bound to get South Carolina's share of the booty. Mr. Williams, too, fairly left the Republicans terror-stricken when he asked what they would do with the tariff-revision message which the President was sure to send in before a twelvemonth had passed.

The Constitutional doubt about remitting duties on building materials for San Francisco will not bear examination. The proposition is simply to exempt from duty certain goods imported for certain specified purposes. Such exceptions have been frequent. In fact, they exist to-day under the Dingley law, which grants to institutions of learning, for instance, the free importation of certain classes of books upon which others are required to pay a burdensome duty. Works of art, too, may be imported free of duty for public galleries. A rebate of duty is allowed on raw materials when the manufactured articles into which they are wrought are exported for sale abroad. In all these cases, Congress has assumed the right under the Constitution to allow the free importation for specified purposes of certain articles otherwise dutiable. The exception has been based upon the ground that some public interest would thereby be promoted, though in every case the immediate gain falls to comparatively few. No exercise of the supposed right by Congress has ever encountered an adverse decision of the courts. Republicans who have sustained the hitherto unprecedented breadth of interpretation put upon the Constitution under the McKinley and Roosevelt Administrations will merely excite derision by pleading Constitutional scruples against this sorely needed and readily available means of succoring the fallen city.

Ex-Mayor Phelan's reported proposal to the San Francisco municipal finance committee, that the Federal Government be asked to endorse a loan to be raised by that city, will very probably go no further than suggestion; but it would raise some interesting questions. Mr. Phelan is quoted as saying that for such endorsement precedent exists in the loan of the United States to the Pacific railways during the sixties, and, more recently, in its railway loan to the Philippines. What will occur to the practical reader, however, is not only that circumstances were so peculiar in both these cases as to provide no real precedent, but that the nature of the Government aid differed radically from that now suggested in the case of San Francisco. If the Union Pacific had defaulted outright on its interest due the Government, the United States possessed the right of foreclosure. If the Philippine railway concessionaires were to fall back on the Philippine Commission for its guarantee of interest on their bonds, a similar lien would exist. Even in the case of the bonds issued by the United States last March to help the construction of public works in the Philippines, it was stipulated that we should possess a lien on the lands bought from the Philippine religious orders. The railways and the lands were at least rational security for the Federal Government to deal with; but it is somewhat difficult to imagine the Federal Government foreclosing on the San Francisco public-utility systems and the city hall.

Although relief in the shape of tariff reduction has been withheld from the Philippines, the present Congress has granted one boon to the unhappy islands. It has just postponed until April 11, 1909, the application of the coastwise shipping laws to trade between our ports and the Philippines. Otherwise, American bottoms would have been granted a monopoly of this carrying trade after July 1 of this year. Just how much higher freight rates this restriction would have brought about is very naturally disputed—the Philippine Commission says 50 per cent.; but there is no doubt that it would raise very materially the cost of bringing to this country the Philippine products, which already have to pay 75 per cent. of the Dingley tariff rates. The Philippines, of course, are foreign territory whenever it is to the interest of the sugar or tobacco men to have them so, but for the purpose of benefiting ship-owners they were to be made domestic territory. Nevertheless, there has been a singular reluctance to apply these coastwise laws. The Philippine act of 1902 put off their application till 1904. Then, a few months before the expiration of the period thus set, Senator Lodge's Philippine Committee brought in a bill exempting the inter-island trade entirely, but leaving the date as it was. On the floor of the Senate, the bill was amended to make 1905 the date for the shipping monopoly. The House made it July 1, 1906, and in that form it was passed. There were then two years and three months in which shipbuilders and shipowners might get ready for the new traffic which Congress had delivered into their hands. The sponsors of the bill in both houses of Congress ridiculed the idea that there would not be enough and more than enough tonnage by 1906 to carry every pound of hemp or other products the Filipinos could dream of producing.

And what has been the result? Here is a colloquy that occurred on the floor of the House two weeks ago:

> "Mr. Stafford—I would like to ask the gentleman whether . . . there has been any extension in the shipping interests in view of giving to the American-made vessels a monopoly of the Philippine tariff?
>
> "Mr. Crumpacker—I think there has been none at all.
>
> "Mr. Stafford—Then I would like to ask the gentleman whether he thinks that by postponing for three years, until April 11, 1909, there will be any additional American ships built by reason of that prospective monopoly we were going to create for the Philippine trade?
>
> "Mr. Crumpacker—I hardly know how to answer that question, because any answer I could make would be purely conjectural. I believe this, that in the meantime we will probably abolish the custom duties upon Philippine products, and if we had free trade now with the islands, they could probably get along if the coastwise laws applied to their shipping."

There is the policy expressed in one sentence. We were to relieve the distress of the Philippines by removing the tariff, and then compel them to pay over part of their gain to the American ship-owners. Give their industries a chance to get on their feet, and they at once become fair game for another set of selfish interests. All but a very few men in Congress, however, stopped short at demanding that this tribute be demanded from the Philippines at the same time that we refuse them the means for paying it by marketing their products.

Following the Senate's careful and in-

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telligent scrutiny of the Indian Appropriation bill, the Indian Rights Association is now asking Congress to avert what is called "a menace to the reindeer industry" of Alaska. Here are two illustrations of the changed attitude of the public toward the native Americans. Ten years ago the pamphlet issued by the Association to call attention to the danger of transferring the control of some 13,000 head of reindeer from the United States Bureau of Education to the Governor's office, would have been regarded as about as important as the minutes of a tatting club. But now the protest is taken seriously. It is to be classed with such questions of morals as the continuance of prohibition in Indian Territory, the provision of home work for reservation dwellers who have farms and families, the investigation of forest-reserve operations on Indian lands in the Northwest, and the Government's solicitude as to the "square deal" on the part of the agent to the Umatillas in Oregon. It is worth while to consider the case of the native Alaskans. They seem to be amenable to the law without enjoying the law's protection. They are discriminated against in the schools, and now it is feared that if the control of the fifteen reindeer herds that were started in 1892 to provide for the self-support of the natives is placed in the Governor's hands, the old tale of the Indian spoilers will be repeated.

Secretary Bonaparte explains to his fellow-members of the National Municipal League that the Government service is kept in a state of comparative inefficiency because of our insistence upon the theory that "all men of right ought to be, and therefore should be made and kept, precisely equal." In other words, we refuse to admit that an Elihu Root can be more valuable to the country than a Cortelyou, or a Taft more indispensable than a Metcalf. The Government bestows the title of "secretary" upon nine citizens of the United States, chosen from every part of the country, and pays each of them $8,000 a year. It regards a colonel as a colonel, worth at the best $4,500 a year, while it is notorious that a score of banking houses in New York will gladly pay ten times as much for the services of a "captain," or even an efficient "lieutenant," of industry. Of course, no one imagines that a responsible civil officer of the Government thinks himself properly paid; he must inevitably count upon the advertising value of his office in reference to future private employment. Our cities, lacking this power of bestowing prestige upon their servants, pay far higher salaries than are paid at Washington. While Secretary Taft, for example, must go on directing both the army and the Panama Canal for $8,000 a year, New York's superintendent of schools convinces the Board of Education that his pay should be increased from $8,000 to $10,000 a year.

To the annoyance of many citizens of the West, Secretary Hitchcock keeps pegging away at the land frauds. Information laid before the Federal Grand Jury at Sioux Falls, S. D., a few days ago, tending to implicate C. I. Crawford, a "reform" candidate for Governor, has drawn from that gentleman a curious and spirited comment. In effect, he declares that the filing of charges against him is a deep conspiracy between the Republican machine of South Dakota and the Government at Washington to ruin his career. But the ordinary observer of Mr. Hitchcock's activity in the past two years will doubt Mr. Crawford's statement, in so far as it implies that an innocent man is being "persecuted." Nobody believes that Senator Mitchell and Representatives Hermann and Williamson were made victims of an ambitious State machine; the Rev. Mr. Ware of the Black Hills had no vindictive political enemies; John Q. Anderson, a Republican Presidential elector in 1904, who is under indictment in Sioux Falls, had no quarrel with his party organization; Royal B. Stearns of Fort Pierre is under an eighteen months' sentence, in spite of his prominence; and the State organization did not prevent the indictment of Thomas H. Ayres, a former private secretary of ex-Gov. Lee. Mr. Crawford has yet to learn what the people of Nebraska, Kansas, and Oregon have had impressed upon them, that the moral "spasm" suffered by the Interior Department at Washington is really something chronic.

The effect of Secretary Root's assumption of control over the Department of State has already become apparent in a number of ways. The executive order of last November required an examination for new appointees to all posts in the consular service above as well as below $2,500 per year. At the same time, consuls were informed that a system of efficiency records had been instituted whereby they were to be rated according to the value of their commercial reports and their display of ability in the performance of other duties, with a view to consideration in connection with the opportunities for promotion. Those who are in the service know that this matter is being taken seriously in the Department, witness numberless little evidences in dispatches, circulars, etc. One result has been that consuls of long standing who have hitherto done little or nothing in the way of making commercial reports (men who knew to what influence they owed their appointment, and who have felt secure in paying no attention to the making of reports or even to the study of commercial conditions in their districts), are suddenly displaying some activity in this matter. All the consuls have noted, too, that circulars, customs rulings, etc., are sent out from Washington regularly as they appear, and not weeks after; that circulars are fewer and more carefully drawn, and do not so often contradict or else correct their predecessors; that accounts are passed upon promptly, instead of only after weeks, or even months. In these and other ways they note that some of the dry-rot is being shaken out of the old State Department by an organizer's hand. Consuls who have kept their records and performed their duties carefully, and have tried to promote their country's interests in their districts, now fairly expect that the Department will somehow, sometime, discover these facts. They also hope that the new inspecting agents whom the Department will employ to this end, will know enough to see such things when they do inspect, and will not merely perform their duties in a perfunctory way, or treat their supervisory functions as an opportunity to display to the consular service or to people abroad their own magnificence.

Harry H. Bender, State Fiscal Supervisor of Charities, must submit to an investigation by the Civil Service Commission. The case in brief is this: Bender, whom 'twere gross flattery to call a cheap politician, tried in 1904 to have a campaign contribution collected from one of his subordinates. The man refused, and was dropped from office. Then the New York Civil Service Reform Association filed charges against Bender, and the Commission started to investigate. But Bender, who knew that he had flagrantly violated the law, has resorted to every legal quibble and trick in order to escape from the clutches of the Commission. His efforts, however, have been vain, for the Court of Appeals has finally decided that the Commission has jurisdiction. This evasion and delay would have been impossible had Governor Higgins possessed courage enough to discipline Bender; but Higgins, as usual, has been afraid of Bender's powerful friends. The Civil Service Commission can, we believe, be trusted to push this case to the bitter end. Whether the result will be the removal of Bender, is doubtful. That he richly deserves to be kicked out of an office which he disgraces, no one can deny.

We read with pain that the deadly millionaire is being warmed and nourished in the very bosom of the national capital. Congressman Gillett of the subcommittee on appropriations for the District of Columbia tells us that Washington has become a veritable paradise for

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tax-dodgers. The tax-rate is fixed by law arbitrarily at $15 the thousand, and the valuations at 66 per cent. of market prices. But the personal tax amounts to practically nothing at all. Household effects above a certain value are taxed, it is true, but stocks, bonds, and other securities are allowed to escape altogether. The national Government pays half of the cost of local administration. This is a standing invitation to persons of great wealth to flock to Washington, with their resources in tin boxes, which the assessors cannot lawfully invade. This looks bad for Congressmen on the way to face their constituents, and it also has a serious aspect for President Roosevelt. Just as he is maturing his plans for drawing the fangs of the golden serpent, wealth lifts an immune head under the very shadow of the White House.

Next to its opposition to the Chamberlain fiscal programme, the strongest appeal which the Liberal party was able to make to the so-called "City" interests was a promise to set the public finances in order. The Tory Government had not handled them successfully. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach brought a trained experience to the task of financing the Boer war itself, but it is now quite generally agreed that he tried too many experiments. At one time he would issue a war loan distinct in form from outstanding consols; at another he would issue consols with a prior allotment to foreign banking syndicates; then both plans would be suddenly abandoned, and the old practice of selling consols direct to the public be resumed. The effect was to upset the market for British Government securities more than was necessary, and to force the Exchequer constantly into short-term, piecemeal borrowings when it felt doubtful about trusting the money market for subscription at satisfactory prices to a new consolidated loan. Mr. Ritchie, who succeeded Sir Michael Hicks-Beach in 1902, was driven to drawing on the sinking-fund; his successor, Mr. Austen Chamberlain, resorted, two years after the war was over, to an increase of one penny in the pound in the income tax. With all this, the Government's floating debt—"exchequer bonds" running three to five years, and "treasury bills" for still shorter periods—continued in such unwieldy volume that, as against the $40,000,000 of 1899, before the Boer war, its present total is $278,750,000.

Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, declares his purpose to stop this heaping-up of unclassed debt. The most serious charge against the late Tory Government's financial policy was that of unthrift in constantly adding to this floating debt to provide for its naval and military construction. Mr. Asquith correctly pointed out, in his budget speech on Monday, that the mere existence of so huge an indebtedness of the sort was a burden to trade and financial enterprise; for the reason that, whereas the general investing public takes an issue of consols, these short-term bonds and Government notes have to be cared for by the banks, where they absorb the capital which should remain at the money market's service. Pursuance of expensive public policies on the basis of casual borrowing of this sort is a most demoralizing practice. Under it a government slips from one outlay to another, without ever being brought to the reckoning which a large public loan, with its measuring of the public credit, must involve. Mr. Asquith announces that the main expedient towards rectifying this evil should be rigid economy; the $17,300,000 surplus of the fiscal year ending with March is chiefly devoted to reducing or repealing some of the Tory Government's import taxes. The budget speech was on the whole a distinct pledge that the free-handed committing to extravagant undertakings will not, under this Ministry, be encouraged.

The Trade Disputes bill, which exempts trade-union funds from legal attachment, has passed second reading in the Commons without opposition. Mr. Balfour gave notice that the matter would be threshed out in committee. The unchecked course of this flagrant bit of class legislation in Parliament is almost equally discreditable to Government and Opposition. If it is deplorable to see a Liberal Ministry in abject surrender to a group of Laborite members, it is no less unfortunate to find a compact and ably led Opposition silent on a bill of capital importance. Except for a rather futile hour of heckling the Ministry for changing its mind over night, the Unionist leaders have let the bill alone. The matter of principle and fair play, which is obviously all-important, has been thoroughly discussed only by the Attorney-General, whose argument the Government straightway repudiated. It is clear that Mr. Chamberlain has reasons for not attacking this vicious act. He is groping about for a future composite majority that is to include the Laborites. Mr. Balfour, however, is not struck dumb by solicitude for his future prospects. What would his political godfather, the late Lord Salisbury, have said to waiving an issue of principle on a bill of revolutionary tendency, and making up by haggling over details in the committee stage? The impotence of the Unionists on an issue peculiarly their own shows how far the disintegration of the historic parties has gone. Gladstone and Disraeli, should their shades return to Westminster, would feel equally out of place to right or to left of the Speaker.

Very interesting is Lord Cromer's suggestion, in his latest blue-book, for a radical change in the legislative control of Egypt. The British protectorate is still conducted under the old "Capitulations," which require the unanimous consent of the European concert for any change in Egyptian law. Justified when Egypt was actually an international concern, the protocol is only an embarrassment now. It gives large obstructive powers to nations that have no real interest in the administration of Egypt. Practically, the European concert does nothing helpful in the premises; potentially, one disaffected nation might make a great deal of trouble. Lord Cromer's proposal is for a permanent council, which, representing the signatory Powers, will actually supervise the making of Egyptian law. In this way the principle of internationalism will be not only preserved, but made more effectual. The proposal is accompanied by a clear and convincing statement of England's duty as a trustee for civilization—a profession that gains all credit from the facts of Lord Cromer's administration. Since the Anglo-French agreement contained an express disavowal of the especial claims of France in Egypt, and no other nation except England has just standing-ground there, the way seems easy to such a readjustment of the Capitulations as is outlined above.

The Sinai peninsula is perhaps less worth a quarrel than any equal area on the globe, and one need expect no serious results from the friction between Turkey and Egypt regarding the possession of Akabah. This fort is on the pilgrim route to Mecca. For nearly seventy years the Khedive occupied it in the interest of the Egyptian pilgrims, and the garrison was withdrawn only after the land route had been practically abandoned. For a matter of fourteen years the boundary between Egypt and Syria has remained in dispute, and the Turks have made advances towards what is regarded as Egyptian territory. Primarily a problem in cartography, the Turkish garrisons have practically made the border dispute unpleasant for Egyptian travellers. Egypt has now demanded that the Turkish garrisons be withdrawn from the debatable region and the *status quo* restored. Earl Grey's statement that the Egyptian contingent is being increased at Lord Cromer's request, shows that the British Government stands ready to support the Khedive's contention. The matter is intrinsically of little importance, but requires settlement, because it affords an opportunity for schemers at Constantinople to keep up a slight irritation between the Sublime Porte and Downing Street. Such an exchange of pin-pricks is no unwelcome spectacle, perhaps, in certain non-Muslim capitals of Europe.

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OUR INHUMAN TARIFF.

It was not logic but the appeals of starving men which gave England free trade. The failure of the potato crop of Ireland in 1845 did what Cobden's speeches and Bright's eloquence had not been able to accomplish. It compelled Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington—that Iron Duke whom Cobden reminded that, despite all his victories, he had "never yet entered into a contest with Englishmen in which he was not beaten"—to repeal the Corn laws. Privilege and party and an historic policy had all to go by the board when humanity asserted itself against them. There might be various alleviations of Irish distress, the Prime Minister wrote, but "the only effectual remedy is the removal of impediments to import."

Protection in this country is now facing a similar crisis. Devastated San Francisco is looking about for the material wherewith to rebuild, and finds the tariff prepared to exact the uttermost farthing from her even in her extremity. She needs lumber, and the vast stores of British Columbia are ready to pour in upon her, but the Dingley tariff thrusts itself between and says: "First pay the extra $2 a thousand." San Francisco needs steel and iron beams and girders, to make sure that the future city shall be so far as possible earthquake-proof; but the dead hand of protection first demands its payment of ½ cent a pound. Cement will be required in great quantities, but before San Francisco can get a barrel of it, the tariff tribute must be paid of "eight cents per one hundred pounds, including weight of barrel or package." In these and other ways does the tariff Apollyon straddle the path along which San Francisco would walk to recovery.

The resulting sense of inhumanity is plainly fluttering the dovecotes of the standpatters at Washington. The protected interests are preparing to make a grudging concession to the humane instincts. The steel men and the lumber men and the cement men are willing to remove the duty on building materials destined for use in San Francisco, but "only for a specific period." This they could put up with, but what they "fear" is a "tariff debate," and, above all, they "dread the striking object-lesson which must result from such legislation." Indeed, they see troubles swelling ahead of them immediately, since they consider it "doubtful if exemption of Trust-controlled building material from a removal of the duty would be tolerated at this time, in the present temper of the people and a portion of Congress toward tariff revision."

This gives the whole case away delightfully. Greed and monopoly, intrenched in the law, are willing to remit a portion of their plunder temporarily, for the sake of aiding people in exceptional distress—or, rather, they dare not refuse to do this—but they serve notice on every other subject American that there will be no let-up on him whatsoever. For the time being, they may even be as kind to the residents of San Francisco as they are to foreigners; may sell to them at 30 per cent. under what they extort from sheep-like consumers of their own, their native land; may even consent, if they find they cannot, on account of a glut of orders, produce in time the steel and lumber and cement needed, to allow commerce to flow into the Golden Gate unvexed for a year by artificial hindrances; but they want it clearly understood that this relaxation of their grip on the country is only provisional and fleeting, and that they mean to go on taxing all other Americans without a particle of mercy or remorse.

What is the dreaded "object-lesson"? It is the demonstration, first of all, that the pretence of protectionists that "the foreigner pays the tax" is a hoary old fraud. We saw it for what it is when Congress made exemptions for burned Portland in the sixties and for burned Chicago in the seventies; but never did it appear more of a hideous absurdity than now, when even a protection-ridden Congress is preparing to relieve the native from paying the tax simply because he is destitute and it would be inhuman to make him pay it. The object-lesson next goes on to show exactly what is the power which the protected interests exercise under the forms of law. It is the power of taxation. Taxes levied by the Government for the public are a necessary evil, often grievous to be borne; but a right of taxation corruptly acquired by private interests and ruthlessly insisted upon throughout the whole country is an outrage which only needs to be uncovered to be hated. Tariff exemption for San Francisco does uncover the whole unjust system, and hence the fear and trembling of its beneficiaries. The teacher of the object-lesson will also not fail to point out that the alliance of protection with politics sends to Washington men who represent particular interests, not the people. Look at the all-powerful Senator Aldrich at this moment. It is to his tender mercies, as chairman of the Finance Committee, that the San Franciscans have to appeal. He will decide just what duties and for how long will be graciously remitted by the tariff Trusts. But on the question of free alcohol, be it noted, Aldrich is firm. The bill which passed the House by a great majority, he is going to hold up for this session. He needs to "investigate" it. But it does not require much investigating to show that the Standard Oil Company is opposed to the free-alcohol bill, and that Aldrich is doing the bidding of his masters. It is such aspects of tariff corruption that we hope the Democrats in Congress will not fail to emphasize when the bills repealing duties for the benefit of San Francisco are put upon their passage.

Meanwhile, the philanthropists of the steel trade are geting together against the bill to admit structural steel duty free, for the rebuilding of San Francisco. The *Iron Age* kindly explains: "It always takes time to rebuild, and the somewhat hysterical fears that the mills of this country, busy as they are now, could not cover the demand, are utterly unjustified." The obvious inference is that under such circumstances Congress would be guilty of a crime if it encouraged San Francisco to buy steel of the malignant foreigner. The *Iron Trade Review* declares frankly that the manufacturers will oppose the free admission of structural material. The Steel Corporation will give preference to the orders from San Francisco, so as to "prevent the necessity of calling on foreign plants to help in this emergency." The attitude of the protected monopoly is admirably reflected by the *Iron Trade Review*. That journal is moved to deep enthusiasm over "the wonderful courage, public spirit, and home devotion of the people of the stricken city." This is a very pretty statement of the sentimental aspect of the case; but in cold practice this glow of sympathy finds expression in that altruistic precept, "Line your pockets."

CONSERVATIVE WESTERN DEMOCRATS.

In nominating ex-Senator W. A. Harris for Governor, the Democrats of Kansas have chosen the strongest available politician in the State. Once leader of the Populists and classified as a "typical Kansas statesman," Mr. Harris at sixty-five is perhaps a more conservative man than Governor Hoch, who, it is expected, will be his opponent in November. The rest of the ticket is excellent. The campaign will be a serious one, upon clear issues; and, if the judgment of local observers is to be trusted, the party has an even chance of winning. What is promised in Kansas is perhaps typical of the new style of Democratic strategy, in the West at any rate. Out there the false gods have had their day of adoration, and now the party is returning to what they call in Nebraska "the J. Sterling Morton brand of democracy." Ultra-radicalism is, by the political law which decrees that new things shall come out of the West and penetrate the East in from five to ten years, now pretty much confined to the Hearst stripe of Democrats in New York and to the "Socialist-Democrats" of New England.

The Kansas Democrats, instead of calling for a repeal of the prohibitory law,

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on the ground that, as it works in Kansas, it is a mere sham, call for the law's rigid enforcement. Writing before last week's convention met, a Topeka Democrat declared that the campaign would be made on the law-enforcement issue, on the proposal to secure a two-cents-a-mile passenger fare on the railways of the State, and on the anti-pass issue. These, be it noted, are all good Republican articles of faith in Kansas. It comes to a question which party can convince the greater number of voters of its ability to carry out its programme. According to tradition, the Democrats have a prior claim, and with one of the Populist old guard at the head of the party in Kansas, that State may show the way to what may amount to a general rolling back of the "Roosevelt tidal wave" of two years ago. Governors are to be chosen in California, Idaho, Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and North Dakota of the Western group of States; in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas of the Southern group; and in Maine, New Hampshire, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania in the East. Besides, the general Congressional elections will serve to register the strength of this new, conservative element in the party.

Nebraska used to refer to "that grand old Democratic doxology,"

> "We want the offices—
> We don't care who the candidate or what the platform is."

From the time of Bryan's rise to a position of control in that State, however, this taunt has seldom been heard. It is significant that it has been revived by a Republican newspaper—but with the object of attempting to show that, on account of factional fights in the party, it does not now apply. As a matter of fact, the Democrats of Nebraska have come nearer to raising a live issue—the election of Senators by the people—than for a long time past. In Wisconsin, too, where the Democratic State Committee has just met, it is proposed to agitate for a party convention on the ground that under the primary law there is no opportunity for the formulation of an acceptable party platform. Candidates make the issues, while the party is left voiceless. In California, Democratic leaders have recently met to map out the campaign and to repair the blunders of four years ago that resulted in the defeat of their candidate for Governor.

In such widely separated States as Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, a hopeful spirit is shown by the Democratic party guides. Under Governor Johnson it is said that the old Hanna Republican machine in Minnesota has been broken down. Senators Nelson and Clapp are charged with losing to the State a disproportionate amount of Federal patronage. They are urged by the Republicans to "get in line at the White House." An old Hanna worker recently said: "When the Republican President, in a message to Congress, lauds the Democratic Governor of Minnesota, and the latter responds in a letter lavish with personal admiration and adulation, the wheel-horses of the old Republican party may well wonder what will come next." This is a concrete illustration of the success of the new leaders of Democracy in the ancient seats of Populism in getting hold good campaign material.

There is a growing belief in Washington that in the next Congress far fewer Republican Representatives will have seats. The solid Republican delegations of such States as California, Nebraska, and Minnesota seem certain to be broken, while Illinois will send more than one Democrat to bear Rainey company. Some of Missouri's freshmen Republicans will retire. In Indiana it is expected that the Democrats will profit by Republican factional quarrels. The situation in the Eighth District is suggestive. Here Representative Cromer has just won a renomination, but after a fight that put heart into the Democrats, who say that "we have never said as mean things about the Republicans as they have said about each other."

While Pennsylvania Democrats are hopeful of electing a successor to Gov. Pennypacker and are taking stock of the strong points of State Treasurer Berry, whom they elected last year at the height of the "reform" movement, such accidental breaks in the ranks are not counted upon. In the West it is recognized that a man like Hearst might be seated in the Governor's chair at Albany, but such a "Democratic" victory would not deceive the party out there. The need for keeping sane is felt. With Western Republicans emphasizing old Democratic doctrine, such as tariff reform, State railroad regulation, and the popular election of Senators, it is felt that a "Democratic year" is due. If the avoidance of radicalism will help to gather the fruits of the movement toward Democratic principles, the party leaders in the West are prepared to resist the radicals.

CLERICAL VERACITY.

The ecclesiastical court before which the trial of the Rev. Dr. Crapsey for heresy has just terminated, declined on Thursday to allow any witnesses to qualify as "experts in doctrine." This seems proper enough. The question of doctrinal soundness is the very thing upon which the court itself has to pass. And if even clerical outsiders are not allowed to advise the court on points of theology, laymen must *à fortiori* keep silent. But there are certain moral aspects of the matter in which we are all interested, and upon which any man of good understanding and clear conscience is entitled to be heard. Moreover, on this point we have at hand a qualified expert. The late Prof. Henry Sidgwick, in his two essays on "The Ethics of Religious Conformity" and "Clerical Veracity," discussed the moral bearings of the question at issue in the Crapsey prosecution, with a directness as great as if the case itself had been laid before him. He took up precisely the instance of a clergyman who ceases to believe in the virgin birth of Jesus, and yet clings to the ministry in a church which compels him solemnly to avow such a belief every Sunday; and discussed it with a liberality, a large reason, and a moral earnestness which leave little for one to do except glean after him.

Professor Sidgwick was neither bigot, skeptic, nor indifferentist. He was a man who keenly sympathized with the liberalizing movement in the church, as everywhere else. He would grant you all the arguments for the need of revivifying outworn creeds by fresh interpretation. He was for the utmost possible freedom for clergymen. Phrases in the historic creeds which are tacitly abandoned, in their literal sense, by Christendom—such as the resurrection of the actual physical body, the descent into hell, or the ascription of bodily parts to the Deity—he would concede that they might continue to use, in a non-natural sense, since no one, or, at least, no intelligent person, is any longer deceived thereby. But Professor Sidgwick found an insurmountable moral difficulty in the explicit assertion by a clergyman, in the solemn worship of Almighty God, of belief in a plain and unambiguous statement of fact in which, in reality, he had abandoned belief. As if with his eye precisely on Dr. Crapsey, he wrote:

> "My contention is simply that the widest license of variation that can be reasonably claimed must stop short of the permission to utter a hard, flat, unmistakable falsehood; and this is what a clergyman does who says solemnly—in the recital of the Apostles' Creed—'I believe in Jesus Christ, . . . who was conceived by the Holy Ghost, born of the Virgin Mary,' when he really believes that Jesus was, like other human beings, the son of two human parents."

This, of course, goes quite beyond the usual debate about the established formularies of the church and the obligation of ordination vows. It is solely the question of the clergyman's own moral position upon which Professor Sidgwick fixes his penetrating gaze. The right of growth and the duty to change with new light, he fully admits. Tacit changes in the common understanding of the creeds he recognizes as freeing a clergyman from the charge of untruthfulness in using the old language. There is also the matter of "good faith" with his ecclesiastical superiors. He may frankly go to his bishop, admit that his views about certain doctrines

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have changed, and obtain assurances that he is still within the permitted liberties of the church. Or, in the interest of theological advance and of relief for troubled consciences, he may publicly acknowledge his heresy, and ask the courts of his church to try him in order to determine whether it may be tolerated. That seems to be very much the attitude of Dr. Crapsey. A great deal is to be said for it. It is undoubtedly one of the ways in which theology may be liberalized. But behind all that lies the question of "truth in the inward parts." What is the moral attitude of a clergyman who, with or without the permission or acquiescence of his superiors, stands up before the great congregation and declares in the presence of God, "I believe" —a certain clear assertion of historic fact which he does not really believe? Professor Sidgwick was replied to by the Rev. Mr. Rashdall of Oxford, who argued against a pedantic insistence upon "technical veracity" in dealing with church symbols prescribed for repetition in public services. But Sidgwick rejoined:

"My complaint is that, instead of stating and applying these considerations with the care and delicacy of distinction required for helpfulness, so as to show how the essence of veracity may be realized under peculiar and somewhat perplexing conditions, he rather uses them to suggest the depressing and demoralizing conclusion that no clergyman can possibly speak the truth in the sense in which a plain layman understands truth-speaking; so that any clergyman may lie without scruple in the cause of religious progress, with a view to aiding popular education in the new theology, and still feel that he is as veracious as his profession allows him to be. Or, perhaps, I should rather say that Mr. Rashdall's conception of substantial veracity is what grammarians call *proleptic*; the duty of truth-speaking is, he thinks, adequately performed by a Postnatalist [one denying the miraculous birth] if he may reasonably hope that the falsehood he now utters will before long cease to deceive through the spread of a common understanding that he does not mean what he says."

What, then, is a progressive clergyman to do? Let him stick to his work, if his heart is in it, and if his departures from the faith as his church "hath received the same" do not compel him to a living lie. But if his divergence from accepted doctrine be such that he cannot stand up and repeat the prescribed creeds without intellectual stultification and moral ignominy, then his place is elsewhere; and all the arguments from usefulness and "spiritual importance" but make his position the more untenable. He may lead a movement to change a creed which has become impossible to him, but he cannot go on repeating it when to do so is of the essence of falsehood. This may be said with a sympathy as full as Professor Sidgwick's for the men who are trying to rid inherited creeds of their "thaumatological elements." Of such men we may, with him, highly approve, and say that they are "engaged on a good work and profitable for these times"; but we shall be compelled to add that it is "not a work that can properly be done within the pale of the Anglican ministry."

LUXURIOUS TAXERS OF LUXURY.

Before the President's deliverance about the need of limiting fortunes by legislation is completely dismissed as "only one of Teddy's breaks," it may be asked just why the outgiving caused so much surprise, coming from him. Every one seems to have felt a certain incongruity about it. This has been variously defined. Some have found the misfit to be simply that of time and place. Why did Mr. Roosevelt throw his hand grenade, and then declare that he had no intention of waiting to see the effect of the explosion, or of following it up? Others have felt that the trouble lay in the President's looking at the matter solely as a measure of social reform, not of public revenue. For others, the offence appeared in a Republican President taking up a doctrine of the Populists. Could he ever have been elected if we had known that he was such a radical?

In our opinion, however, the inconsistency goes deeper than any of these things. It is inherent in the case of a luxurious man attacking luxury; of the chief of a lavish nation denouncing inordinate expenditure. An Italian writer, Guglielmo Ferrero, dealt some months ago with this moral "antinomy," as the philosophers might call it. He pointed out the essential contradiction between the proclaimed ideals of rulers like the Emperor William and President Roosevelt, and the net result of their practice. They exalt the austere virtues, but encourage luxurious habits. They denounce ostentation, but promote it. We may translate a part of what Signor Ferrero wrote about Mr. Roosevelt, to show how near the white he struck:

"Not long ago, Mr. Roosevelt reëdited for the Yankees, as Augustus did for the Romans, the old treatise of Metellus Macedonicus, *De prole augenda*. He repeated to the great republic, softened by wealth and pleasures, the severe discourse which Augustus once addressed to the nobles of Rome. Celibacy he deplored, with the infertility of marriages, the frequency of divorce, and all the vices and selfishness of an over-rich civilization. He endeavored to oppose, again like Augustus, rising luxury with the simple life. There followed much discussion, many exclamations, great admiration—but what did it all amount to? The apostle of simplicity is going, none the less, to cut the Panama Canal and in other ways do all he can to double American commerce, the wealth of the cities, the luxury of the higher classes, and to overwhelm the finer traditions of his country, so dear to the President, with a flood of gold."

This is, in sober truth, to put the finger very near the essence of the puzzled feeling we all have over President Roosevelt's sudden appearance as the enemy of luxury. Publicly, at any rate, he has consistently advocated measures to make this nation the most luxurious going. He has never made a stand for economy. All his recommendations are for larger and larger national outlay, accompanying an ever-increasing extension of the functions of the general Government. He nearly rivals Capt. Hobson in his repeated clamor for a tremendous navy. All military expense he would see pushed up. In addition to tariff largesses from the national Treasury, he would have bounties handed over to shipowners, to aid them to become so "unhealthily" rich that he can begin to tax them to the quick. In a word, he quite lives up to Ferrero's description of him as a public man most lavish in all his policy, yet most denunciatory of the inevitable results of a lavish policy.

One dislikes to refer to the personal aspect of the matter, yet it is necessary to do so if full exhibition is to be made of the contradictories displayed by President Roosevelt in his unexpected dread of great fortunes. In many ways, his private attitude towards money-making has been laudable. He has never shown any of that passion for the speedy acquisition of great wealth which ruined Blaine. We can scarcely imagine an appeal to go into some scheme to get rich making any impression on him. It may be said that this is because he inherited a competence, but that does not matter; the main thing is that, in a time when the pecuniary motive has been far too strong with too many public men, Mr. Roosevelt has been singularly indifferent to it. In this respect, his example has been most wholesome. But this does not make his appearance in the rôle of an austere prophet the less disconcerting, for his manner of life has been, after all, what the average man would call luxurious. He consorts freely with the richest men of the day. This may be only a part of his large and free democracy, which sets millionaire cheek by jowl with cowboy; but it leads to some queer contrasts. The list of guests at the recent White House ceremony was telegraphed abroad as representing more accumulated millions than were ever assembled under one roof. All this is a matter of taste, and wholly within Mr. Roosevelt's rights; but it goes ill with his taking up his parable against great wealth. For such a work we naturally expect a man to be differently equipped; we do not look for one living delicately, but for a prophet clad in camel's hair and coming out of the wilderness; a Jacobin, a revolutionary, with the fire of class hatred burning in his heart; a child of labor, rising to political leadership through consistent attacks on privilege and wealth. True, we have had to see a good deal of outcry against riches by men enjoying all the comforts of wealth; but we think that the incongruity is so peculiarly marked in the President's case as part-

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ly to account for the general astonishment at his desire to cut off the heads of the tallest poppies.

No doubt, the President merely typifies, in all this, a common state of mind. Most of us betray the same divided counsels, if not the same inconsistencies. Of our civilization, too, it may be said that we can endure neither our vices nor their remedies. That is one reason why luxurious taxers of luxury will never make much headway.

MODERNIZING SPAIN.

As the past "glories" of our little war with Spain are more and more forgotten in the presence of the continuing and thankless burdens which it left us, American interest in the affairs of the Peninsula has declined. Our flurry of attention to Spanish developments has subsided, though they are really of a sort to concern us and the whole world. The President recalls our accomplished and acceptable Minister in Madrid, Mr. Hardy, cutting short his diplomatic career to make room for a personal friend; but the act excites no remark. Even when he gives a consolation prize in the shape of a special embassy at King Alfonso's wedding, the interest kindled is but languid. We have ceased to be either Hispanophobes or Hispanophils. Even the translated Spanish novel has gone out of vogue among us.

Spanish politics, it must be confessed, does not offer an inspiriting study. Prime Ministers succeed each other with even greater frequency than in France, and with less apparent reason. Villaverde yields to Montero Rios, and he to Moret, without one being able to perceive adequate cause, either partisan or personal, for the substitutions. The explanation which the most detached observers, whether Spanish or foreign, give of this rather dreary succession of political changes which change nothing, is the dominance of the boss system in Spain. What the group system does in French politics, powerful and unscrupulous bosses, local or provincial, do in Spain. It is the voracious "cacique," with his insatiable demands for patronage, who makes the lives of Ministers both precarious and miserable. This is an old complaint in Spain; but it has been renewed of late with especial emphasis, as it has been freshly illustrated in the otherwise meaningless and, in any case, ignoble course of public affairs.

Commercially and industrially, Spain has given many signs of having taken to heart the bitter lessons of 1898. She is exemplifying the advantages of "intensive" farming, as against the loose and wasteful system. With the artificial colonial market cut off, the manufacturers of Catalonia have been driven to improve their methods and to depend upon their own skill. In the result, they have fully held their own. Barcelona was never more flourishing, and is now the largest and most progressive, as it is in many respects the finest, city of Spain. Similar if smaller improvements are registered in other parts of the country. The disastrous failure of crops in Andalusia last year was, after all, only a temporary check to the progress towards better conditions. Public finance has been comparatively well handled, the steady decline in exchange—or the price of gold—being a sure sign of this; and in many branches of enterprise and investment Spain is making bids for foreign capital. There has been a great demand for electrical apparatus of all kinds. In the northwest, important concessions for developing electrical power from the "white coal" of the Pyrenees, on a scale comparable to that attempted in the south of France, are in the way of being worked. Even in railroad building, where Spain has long been backward, there is new activity. A straight line from Madrid to the French frontier has been chartered by the Government, and will bring with it important commercial and agricultural gains.

It is, however, in the realm of ideas that the Spaniards are revealing the greatest change and the strongest purpose to keep abreast with the modern world. One phase of the movement is dwelt upon by Ernest Martinenche in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He is writing of the dramas of Galdós, who may now be described as the chief literary figure of the Spain of to-day, and shows what is the marked difference between his plays, together with the work of the school of younger dramatists in general, and those which immediately preceded them. It is that they are devoted subtly to the inculcation of the new ideas which have come into the world during the past fifty years, but to which Spain has been singularly and steadily inhospitable. What has given to the dramas of Galdós—which he began to produce only in 1892, after twenty years of novel-writing—their peculiar fame and won them their great influence, is their break with the old tradition. The impact of the modern scientific spirit, the stirring of the dry bones of ecclesiasticism, the struggles of the brain and conscience of Spain to escape from a dead past—these are Galdós's favorite dramatic themes. As Martinenche sums up his review:

> "This Spain, not official but real, Galdós has penetrated to the very bottom of its soul. He has not thought it his duty to hide its weaknesses and imperfections. Nor could he render it a better service. It was shutting itself up and vegetating in barren regrets over past glories. Galdós, with more of filial piety than revolutionary zeal, has shaken off the dust which covered that Spain, and taught her the salutary remedy of walking in the open air by the light of to-day."

Fully as significant is one of the most widely read of recent Spanish novels; we mean 'La Catedral,' by Vicente Blasco Ibañez. Reaching a sale and provoking a discussion almost unexampled in Spain, this story is devoted to impressing the same need of readjustment to modern conditions which Galdós enforces. The book is, in reality, a huge tract for the times. Under the guise of a romance, it is truly a propaganda. The larger part of its 356 pages is taken up with arguments for Spain's coming out of her shell. With the utmost boldness, Señor Ibañez sets himself against the traditional view. The expulsion of the Moors was a great calamity. They would have kept Spain in the stream of modern culture, out of which she drifted. Pride in the colonies was misplaced. They are better gone. Dreams of military power are childish. What Spain lacks is education, suffusion with the scientific spirit. So the author goes on, with much learning and great eloquence and daring; and the fact that his teachings have had so wide an echo, shows that we are in the presence of a Spanish awakening, even if we cannot yet be sure of the achievements to follow.

JAPAN'S IMMEDIATE SOURCES OF WAR-COSTS PAYMENT.

TOKIO, March 31, 1906.

The fury of the war-storm in the East has passed. It shook an earth made small by wire and rail and steam. It brought new chaos to the world. Politically, commercially, financially, the face of the earth is changed. Old marks and bonds are gone. New ties are knit and knitting. New grooves are cut for trade. Great blocks of Japanese securities have been carried away to Europe and America. The ramifications of finance have been extended, enlarged, and complicated. Excitement turned the world's gaze on Japan, interest must partly keep it there. The state of Japan's finances, her industries, her trade, the doings of her Diet, the thoughts and plans of her Government and people, now concern Americans and Europeans.

The first post-bellum Diet is a sort of mirror which shows Japan in many phases, under many lights. Reflected from this mirror in towering proportions are costs of war and the present state of finances. The most careful scrutiny of these two main objects cannot yet trace all minor lines. The Finance Minister himself said that, since the war, some ships have not yet touched home ports, and the exact costs of repair cannot be stated. Although a special War Account is kept, some minor payments have been made from the regular budget and are not easily traceable. Plans for military readjustments and for other enterprises born of the war are not yet shaped. The Ministry said it hoped to have them ready for the next session of the Diet. Hence the ultimate effect of the war on Japan's finances cannot yet be wholly seen. Still, the newly enacted Budget enables us to see approximately the costs of the war to Japan, and also the immediate effects on her finances.

Omitting some minor items which are not

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yet clear, and including interest on war debt till March 31, 1906, the total costs to Japan of her war with Russia were about 2,204 million yen (dollars). From this deduct the balance receivable from Russia for maintenance of prisoners, now unofficially stated to be about 80 millions. The immediate means of payment were:

	Million yen.	Million yen.
New and increased taxes and monopoly (tobacco and salt) profits, 1904-06 (March 31)	212.6	...
Economies in normal budget	96.4	309
Funds borrowed from "special accounts"		63
Voluntary contributions and miscellaneous		2
Total paid from current revenues and capital funds		374
Balance paid from proceeds of loans to the amount of		*1,830

*As all bonds were issued under par, actual proceeds were much less. Some explanation of the items in this statement will make it clear.

The new and increased taxes and monopoly profits were created by two schemes for providing war revenues. The first scheme (March, 1904) yielded in the first fiscal year (April 1, 1904—March 31, 1905) about 62.2 million yen. It continued with a somewhat larger yield during 1905-1906. The main features of that scheme appear in a previous letter of mine to the *Nation* (May 5, 1904). The second scheme of new and increased taxes (December, 1904) added to yearly revenues about 67.2 million yen. The new taxes were: a progressive succession tax, to yield 4.3 millions; a passenger transportation tax—on railways, tramways, omnibuses, waterways—to yield 3.2 millions; a 10 per cent. consumption tax on silk and cotton goods (woollens being already taxed at 15 per cent.), to yield 7.7 millions; a one sen (½ cent) stamp tax on bank-checks; a placer-mining tax. New import duties were fixed, on cocoons at 10 per cent. and on imported rice at 15 per cent. Textile consumption taxes apply to home products, and also to imports—in the latter case being distinct from and additional to customs duties. A salt monopoly was created to yield 16.2 millions. New sources of revenue thus created yield about one-half the whole new increment of revenues. The remaining half was drawn by increasing the yield from already existing sources. These additions were mainly: land tax, 11.5 millions; income tax, 7 millions; business tax, 6.5 millions; sugar tax, 2.2 millions; stamp duties, 11.5 millions (but this includes *new* textile and bank-check taxes); customs duties, 4.45 millions (including the *new* duties on rice and cocoons, some 2½ millions).

The land tax shows these changes:

	Original rate. Per ct.	*1st inc. Per ct.	†2d inc. Per ct.	Whole rate. Per ct.
Urban building lands	2.5	5.5	12	20
Rural building lands	2.5	3.5	8	14
Other lands	2.5	1.8	1.2	5.5

*March, 1904. †December, 1904.

As shown in my former letter, the first increase gave a rate but little higher than was really paid during the years before the war (1899-1903). The second increase is net addition. The whole rate of 5.5 to 20 per cent., resting on a low cadastral value, is relatively less burdensome than income, business, and some other taxes. The Government had proposed 8 per cent. more on urban building, 6 per cent. more on "other" lands, and 1 per cent. less on rural building lands. The overwhelming influence of the landed interests in the Diet refused to draw from land all that the Government wished. The urban interests opposed the great disparity of rates proposed by the Government for urban and for building lands. The outcome was compromise and the rates above given.

Income taxes are assessed under three classes. Class I. includes income of legal persons, *i. e.*, joint-stock and other companies and partnerships. Class II. includes incomes from public and corporation bonds. Class III. includes all other incomes, *i. e.*, salaries, wages, earnings, allowances, pensions, interests on loans to individuals. The tax on Class II. remains throughout the same as before the war, viz., 2 per cent., while the later issues of home war bonds were exempted from taxation. Incomes under Class I. are divided into two groups. (1) Where the number of shareholders or partners exceeds 21—the original rate being 2.5 per cent.—the war increase is (.7+.8) 1½ times the original rate, making a total rate of 6.25 per cent.; (2) where there are less than 21 shareholders or partners—the original rate being 2.5 per cent.—the war increase was progressive, making a total rate of 4½, 6, 7½, 9½, 11½, 13½, 17, 20¼ per cent. on incomes of 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 100, and over 100 thousand yen respectively.

The changes brought by the war in Class III. are best shown thus:

Amt. of income. Yen.	Rate before the war.	Proportion of rate before the war. 1st inc.	2d inc.	Whole rate.
300 to 500	1	.7	.3	2
500 to 1,000	1.2	.7	.4	2.52
1,000 to 2,000	1.5	.7	.4	3.45
2,000 to 3,000	1.7	.7	.4	3.91
3,000 to 5,000	2	.7	.4	4.60
5,000 to 10,000	2.5	.7	.6	6
10,000 to 15,000	3	.7	.7	7.50
15,000 to 20,000	3.5	.7	.8	9.45
20,000 to 30,000	4	.7	1.0	11.50
30,000 to 50,000	4.5	.7	1.2	13.95
50,000 to 100,000	5	.7	1.4	17
100,000	5.5	.7	1.7	18.70
Over 100,000	6.5	.7	2.0	20.35

The whole rate here given is national tax. To this, urban and prefectural taxes may be added within the limit of .3-10 of the rate before the war. (The actual rate so added in Tokyo this year is about 25-100 of that before the war.) Few salaries in Japan exceed ten thousand yen. Relatively few incomes are in the grades above twenty thousand yen, and probably none are taxable in the two highest grades. Hence the great mass of incomes are taxable in the grades which, including local additions, range from 2¼ to 10 2-5 per cent.

The business tax applies to profits earned in trade, transportation, banking, insurance, manufactures, inn-keeping, and such like enterprises. The tax is assessed on a complicated basis. Its weight and increment of increase closely correspond with those of the income tax.

The new succession tax distinguishes between property used to perpetuate the family estate (property going to the new head of a family) and property passing to others than a new family head. In each case, the tax is graded (a) according to the degree of kinship or to the nature of legal relationship, and (b) according to the value of the property inherited. The rates of the tax range from 1.2 to 6.5 per cent. The peers, who specially feel this tax, wished to avoid or change it; but, on learning that the Lower House would brook no important change in the war budget, the peers gracefully bowed the unwelcome tax into being. The proposals for a salt monopoly and a rice duty called forth from a part of the press and public sharp criticism. The Government asked for a 15 per cent. tax on silk and cotton goods. The Lower House made it 10 per cent., payable in stamps. Both industries concerned strongly, but vainly, opposed the tax and still more the method of collection.

In the second scheme of war taxes, all changes noted and a few of less importance were made by compromise with the Government in the Lower House Budget Committee. Afterwards, patriotic zeal, impatient of criticism or discussion, and wishing to show a united nation, quickly carried them intact through both houses. A provision that all special war taxes (but not succession tax and monopolies) should end within the next year after that in which the war ended, smoothed the way.

The remaining items which contributed to war expenses may be more briefly explained. "Economies in the normal budget" came from certain peace expenses of army and navy, from the suspension of various public works of a continuing nature, from curtailment of ordinary administrative expenses. Sums thus saved were used for war. The "funds borrowed from 'special' accounts" are those which had been created for special purposes, viz., naval maintenance, public relief in times of national calamity, education, redemption of Formosan public-works loans, improvement of State forests. Other items were patriotic gifts and small miscellaneous receipts.

The great part of the war expenses was paid from proceeds of loans. War loans were placed thus:

	Yen.	Per ct.
At home	280,000,000	@ 5
	200,000,000	@ 6
In foreign countries	220,000,000	@ 6
	600,000,000	@ 4½
	100,000,000	@ 4

Last November the Government contracted for a foreign loan of 500 millions at 4 per cent. The net proceeds of that loan (half now in hand) are ear-marked to redeem the home 6 per cents (conversion now in process) and the foreign 6 per cents, and otherwise to balance the war budget. Again, the new budget provides for the issue of 350 millions of additional bonds to square war accounts. Of these, 200 millions at 5 per cent. have just been floated at home. Another 150 millions are to pay pensions, rewards, etc., to army and navy. They will be home 5 per cents, and they are, so far as practicable, to be issued direct to the beneficiaries. Then, after using the 500 millions foreign 4 per cents and the 350 millions home 5 per cents as explained, the war debt will take this form:

	Yen.
Home bonds at 5 per cent (280+350)	630,000,000
Foreign bonds at 4½ per cent	600,000,000
Foreign bonds at 4 per cent	600,000,000
Total	1,830,000,000

It thus appears that, after deducting the balance receivable from Russia for maintenance of prisoners (now unofficially re-

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ported at about 80 millions), Japan's war with Russia has cost her something over 2,124 million yen. Of this sum she has paid (March 31, 1906), out of increased revenues, economies in administration, sums diverted from other uses and patriotic gifts, together, about 311 millions. If she were now to borrow money and restore the capital taken from her permanent funds (this has not yet been done), the addition to her debt made by the war would be about 1,893 million yen. The resultant changes in national expenditures and the way taken to meet them will be shown in a later letter on the recently adopted budget.

E. H. VICKERS.

THE WINDSOR WHISTLERS.

LONDON, April 15, 1906.

The English have of late seen so many pictures and other works of art, after long years in the country, leave it, chiefly for Germany and the United States, that the few whose business it is to take charge of such matters are becoming alarmed. There has been something like a panic among directors of galleries and writers on art. A national art collections fund has been established, with a view to eking out the beggarly pittance for purchases allowed to its galleries and museums by the self-styled richest nation in the world. Various schemes are being suggested to prevent a repetition of recent losses. Some would-be authorities incline to a system of cataloguing all the old pictures in private houses throughout the United Kingdom; others, to a commission—as far as I can understand it—to keep an eye on them; or else, to a stamp act, a stamp tax on every picture, of any date or school, sold—which would make the dealers incontinently shut up shop, and societies of artists bring their exhibitions to an end forevermore. The leading reviews have found space for the subject; the papers that extend their attention to art have been full of it. To read the numerous articles, to follow the animated controversy, is to imagine Great Britain in as violent a state of agitation over its pictures as over its Trade-unions and Education bills. And this is the moment in the midst of the clamor—as if to remind a common-sense public that he has no sympathy with such nonsense—chosen by the King to sell the Whistler etchings which, with the Holbein drawings and the miniatures, were the great glory of the Royal Library at Windsor Castle. Moreover, to emphasize his indifference as to whether or no great works of art remain in the country, he has, as everybody now knows, allowed the royal prints to become the property of a New York print-dealer. It is the first time on record that a King of England has stooped to so "unroyal" a transaction.

The circumstances make it seem all the worse. The etchings were collected during the last reign, though nothing could be less in keeping with the manner of art that usually appealed to Victorian taste and received Victorian patronage. But Sir (then Mr.) Richard Holmes, the librarian at the time, had the intelligence to appreciate Whistler when hardly anybody else did in England, and to foresee the day when the prints would be valued as the masterpieces they are. Gradually the collection increased in number until it included many of the early French and London prints, the Venetian and Dutch sets, some of the later prints, the Naval Review set, which collectors now find so difficult, if not impossible, to complete. Among all these are several very rare prints and states, many very beautiful impressions. The Naval Review series has, moreover, a personal interest, for it was presented to the Queen by Whistler in commemoration of a great royal occasion. The plates were his record, made during the day of the Review at Spithead in 1887, the year of the first jubilee. Permission to present them was asked in a stately letter, afterwards presented at Windsor, to the late Right Hon. W. H. Smith, then in the Cabinet; the gift was accepted by the Queen, and Whistler, with his characteristic respect for the ceremonial of life, did everything to increase its distinction, arranging the prints with every care in a portfolio specially designed by himself. It may be a question whether Queen Victoria (who had the misfortune to dabble in etching) ever looked at the Whistlers more than once, if, indeed, she looked once; whether they interested her in the least; whether she remembered their existence and her gracious approval of them for her library. But, anyway, there they were, the most splendid addition to that library during the Victorian period, and, if left undisturbed, they would have been forever after associated with her name as the Holbeins are with the name of Henry VIII., as so many of the finest pictures in the royal collections are with the names of Charles I. and Oliver Cromwell. There was, too, the immediate personal note in the Naval Review set, commemorative, as it was, of one of the most important events of her reign, presented by the artist who, if not an Englishman any more than Holbein or Van Dyck or the other distinguished foreigners England now delights to claim, was the greatest master at work in the country during the long years when she was Queen.

These are the etchings the King has thought it expedient to sell, in order—so the reports put it with a seriousness that in any other country might be mistaken for humor—in order that the Library, of which they were one of the chief treasures, may be improved! A few years ago, the sale might not have struck one as quite so preposterous and unroyal. It was known only here and there, by a keen collector or by a casual visitor to the Library, that any Whistlers were at Windsor. The Royal Family would, the chances are, have been the last to discover them unaided. But, after the past two years, the King, if he would, could not help knowing something of their actual importance, though it must have come as a surprise when loyal subjects began to compliment him on his Whistlers with scarcely less warmth than on his prize cattle and race horses, which he could understand without the assistance of anybody.

The fact was, loyal subjects were themselves beginning to hear a great deal about the royal Whistlers; they heard about them, first of all, when a representative showing of Whistler was proposed in Edinburgh two winters ago, and it happened that Sir James Guthrie, on the advice of an artist who is an authority in these matters, appealed to Windsor for the loan of some of the etchings there, with the result that the fine Venetian series had a place in the exhibition. Then came the Whistler Memorial Show, arranged by the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers, in London last winter, to which all the Windsor Whistlers were lent, including those in the Princess Victoria's apartments. No one who saw can easily forget the beauty of the court, where they covered the white walls, and of the balcony above, where the Venetian prints were hung. The King was not denied the privilege of seeing this beauty, for he and the Queen visited the exhibition. Apparently, he was impressed in his own royal fashion, though not even the delightful stories of the visit that went the rounds of London afterwards invented anything as hard to believe as the use to which he was to turn his impressions. It will be remembered that, at the close of the London show, some of the Windsor Whistlers went to the Whistler exhibition at the Beaux-Arts in Paris. The French were loud in their praise of the King's generosity and his fine judgment as a collector. Really, in Paris, Edward VII. began to figure as quite a patron of the Fine Arts, a worthy successor to the Stuarts and Tudors. As for the English papers, they were jubilant. What? cried the critics, Whistler not recognized in England, his work not accorded that most practical of all appreciation, a place in one of the country's great collections? What misrepresentation! Look at the Windsor etchings!

Well, no one again can look at the Windsor etchings at Windsor. As soon as the King found out that they had a value and that this value was financial as well as artistic—Sir Richard Holmes having been superseded by another librarian—he sold them. With the exception of several on the walls of Princess Victoria's rooms, they have all gone—early French and London prints, Venetian, Dutch, and the Naval Review, the very portfolios prepared specially for the Queen. Only the letter has been suppressed. There is just a suspicion that somebody connected with the transaction had the grace to be ashamed—perhaps the English dealer who was the King's agent on the occasion; for not until the collection was in the hands of the New York firm was the fact of the sale actually known in London. That the King, like a wise collector, was getting rid of duplicates, principally of his mezzotints, was the first story. Then followed vague references to the Whistlers. Then silence. But the transaction is completed now. An American firm of print-sellers have had the good sense to prize what the King disdains, there is no reason for them to keep silent, and no doubt, before much longer, the Windsor Whistlers will be seen in New York.

That the collection should go out of the country must be the most unfortunate feature of the whole business to those who are quick to lament the lack of patriotism whenever a less exalted Englishman sells any masterpieces in his possession to the foreigner. In the course of the recent excitement over the Rokeby Velasquez, that point was made very clear. Then, however, the public was offered the opportunity to prevent such a catastrophe by putting its hand in its pocket. That the picture was

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for sale was widely advertised; that a smaller sum would be accepted if it were bought for the nation was also announced. But that was a different matter, for, according to rumor—a rumor never denied—the Velasquez was being managed by a little syndicate of art critics who expected to make their profit out of public patriotism: which they doubtless did, unless the scandal was too great to warrant the risk, or unless the whole story was a fabrication—for the "Venus" is now in the National Gallery. When I saw it some years ago at the Old Masters', I remember being very much impressed by it. Whether because of the cleaning it is said to have suffered, or some unrecorded accident, or some uncalled-for repainting, I cannot say, but certainly it fails to impress me in the same way now it hangs with the Velasquez group in the Spanish Room at the National Gallery. I have even heard artists question if Velasquez ever touched it. However, it has been secured for the nation, after months of loud talk about it, diligent collecting for it, much scandal over it; while a foreigner has been allowed to buy the fine collection of Whistlers from the Library of Windsor Castle without one word of protest or one word of regret, to my knowledge, having been uttered. The Englishman who is the rare exception and cares for art, must ask with anxiety if it is the turn of the Holbeins next, and if they too must go in the royal endeavor to improve the Royal Library. N. N.

Correspondence.

COMING HOME TO ROOST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The comment of President Roosevelt on the decision of Judge Humphrey in the Beef Trust cases may be subject to just criticism for its lack of propriety. The intimation of the President that the judge did not know the law, or at least did not follow it, reflects sharply on his qualifications for his office. It would be well for President Roosevelt to go back further and consider the part he himself may have played in what he regards as a miscarriage of justice. Judge Humphrey's intellectual abilities are moderate; he would scarcely be equal to the grasp of any large proposition. Prior to his elevation to the bench, he had greater fame as a politician than as a lawyer. He had been for many years the political factotum of Senator Cullom in southern Illinois. At the time of his appointment he had never manifested high judicial qualities. The President did not appoint him because he supposed he had them; nor did he care to inquire. He simply permitted Senator Cullom to make the appointment, and the Senator spent no time seeking for the best man for the office. The President treated the appointment as he treats all judicial appointments, as one of the "places" which "belong" to Senators. Judgeships are not distinguished by him from the offices of postmaster, marshal, or Indian agent.

Prior to McKinley, most of the Presidents withheld the judiciary from the scope of Senatorial patronage. This desirable custom, unfortunately, has not been in vogue under Roosevelt. He has appointed four judges now sitting in this circuit, none of whom had any distinction at the bar, or any substantial recommendations for their judicial appointments, except those of Senators Cullom and Hopkins. The result is a Federal judiciary not only not comparable to their predecessors, who included Drummond and Blodgett, but below the average even of the State judges. If the judges whom Mr. Roosevelt has thus selected "make a farce of the law," as he declares in his message, a large share of the responsibility is his. John A. Woodruff.

Chicago, April 23, 1906.

LORD GRANVILLE'S STATECRAFT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One who has closely followed the career of Lord Granville is much pleased with your reviewer's estimate of Lord Fitzmaurice's work (*Nation*, March 15), with its fairness and ability. One observation, however, might be controverted, namely, that Lord Granville's name would never be connected with any great and memorable fact in foreign policy. This is not quite the case. Apart from the marked help which he gave to the cause of United Italy during his short first tenure of the Foreign Office, in 1852, his name will be connected with at least three events of very great importance in political history.

(1.) When Foreign Secretary in 1870, Lord Granville notified both belligerents, upon the outbreak of the Franco-German war, that, if either violated Belgian territory, England would at once join the other side. This bold step was wholly successful.

(2.) When Foreign Secretary for the third time, in 1880, he carried through a European naval demonstration organized by himself—the fulfilment of the stipulations enforced two years before by the Berlin Congress upon the Turks, which the Sultan had hitherto evaded.

(3.) Although the outset of the policy was clouded by checks and disasters, Lord Granville initiated the policy of the "policing" of Egypt by England, in 1882, which has ultimately proved so beneficial to both countries and to the world at large.

It may, of course, be said that in these instances he was guided by Mr. Gladstone's influence, but this was not so at the time of the Danish war. Then he assisted the late Queen against Lord Palmerston and Lord Russell, and at first against Mr. Gladstone himself, who subsequently came around to Lord Granville's views, to keep the peace with Germany instead of joining in that conflict. F. H. R. Poole.

April 25, 1906.

Notes.

Brentano's announce for early publication 'Italian Romance Writers,' being essentially a translation of Dr. Joseph Spencer Kennard's 'Romanzi e Romanzieri Italiani,' published in Florence two years ago.

We read in the *Library Journal* for April that the Carnegie Institution of Washington has in mind the completion of the late Joseph Sabin's 'Bibliotheca Americana,' which Mr. Wilberforce Eames carried on as far as John Smith; a desideratum indeed.

Ever since the early days of the London Bibliographical Society, plans for a complete bibliography of English literature have been discussed at its meetings, and the Society has just taken steps to collect material for a catalogue of all English books printed up to the end of 1640. Under the general editorship of its honorary secretary, Mr. A. W. Pollard, a collection of lists of books coming within this scope and preserved in college and cathedral libraries and similar collections has begun to be issued. First to be published is a catalogue of the books in Archbishop Marsh's Library in Dublin of earlier date than 1641, prepared by Dr. Newport J. D. White, Marsh's librarian. It is a volume of ninety pages, enumerating not far from 1,500 titles, chiefly of historical and theological works. The Bibliographical Society stands ready to defray the cost, as far as its funds and the claims of its regular publications will permit, of paper and printing for such other lists of this kind as may be prepared.

Americans of Welsh descent will find much to interest them in the facsimile reproduction of the MSS. of 'The Taylors Cussion' by George Owen (*circa* 1552-1613), to be issued this month with a short biography of the author by Emily M. Pritchard (Olwen Powys). George Owen, Lord of Kemeys, was the only Lord Marcher left in Britain in the time of Elizabeth. He was a noted scholar and antiquary, and, judging from the title-page, a man of quaint humor. Just as "the Taylors cussion made of shreedes of divers peeces hath a snatch," in the same way (so runs the assurance) "he that all this volume reedes of divers thynges will find a snatch." Among the said snatches are rules to shoot great ordnance; to score sheep; to know the full sea at Tenby and Milford; verses to find the books of the Bible as they now are placed; a pithye description of the persons of the Trinity; lists of the Deputy Lieutenants of every shire in Wales and the Marches, of all the shires in England and Wales, and the number of parishes, cities, and boroughs in each shire—of all the bishops that have been in St. Davids—of the fairs and markets in every shire in Wales, with many other matters, notes on antiquities, etc., etc. The book will be put out by subscription by Messrs. Blades, East & Blades, No. 23 Abchurch Lane, London, E. C.

A little handbook for 'Genealogical Research in England, Scotland, and Ireland,' by J. Henry Lea, merits the attention of all serious American searchers for ancestors beyond seas. Besides general preliminary guidance, the main features to be noticed are a list of Probate Jurisdictions for every county, with the location of each and the earliest date of wills (pp. 11-46); an index of Will Registers in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, according to their respective dates (pp. 47-49); the same, alphabetically arranged (pp. 50-52); indexes of Will Registers in the Consistory and Commissary Courts of London (pp. 53-54); a list of Marriage Licenses by dioceses (pp. 57-63); a list of Herald's Visitations (pp. 70-86); a table of the names and jurisdictional scope of the Commissariat Courts of Scotland (pp. 91-95); lists of the Counties of Ireland and their diocesan jurisdiction, and of the Will Indices in the Public Record Office, Dublin (pp. 100-103); and, finally, lists of Probate and Diocesan Re-

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gistries in England, with hours open and of closing (pp. 106-112). The rear is brought up by a folded map on linen, showing the Probate Districts of England and Wales. The author is his own publisher; at South Freeport, Maine (London: Mitchell, Hughes & Clarke), and the price is $1.50 (or, interleaved, $2.50).

Miss H. A. Guerber's 'How to Prepare for Europe' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a new and highly ambitious kind of guide-book. It consists of something over five hundred pages, and is a handbook of "historical, literary, and artistic data." First comes the preparation of the mind, in 486 pages. This includes short histories, from the earliest times, of all the European countries, Asia Minor and North Africa, with excellent maps and illustrations (nearly one hundred in number) of places and famous pictures; all clear and well reproduced. For each country there are bibliographies and tables of dates. The wonder grows how one small book can carry all this. But when one observes, on closer scrutiny, that the four pages of "Greek History" contain no single name or date, one marvels less. Miss Guerber, however, is detailed enough, in all conscience, in her table of Greek chronology, and we feel that the unwary reader should be warned that if he accepts 1198 as the precise date when Paris kidnapped Helen, or 1213 for that first abduction by Theseus, he must not suppose that he is backed by the pundits of to-day. Let him, however, digest as he may all those thirty-four imaginary dates in the table down to the eighth century B. C., provided only that he does not follow the authoress in her statement on page 49 that the Long Walls of Athens were pulled down in 411; for, as a fact, that devoted city preserved her cherished walls to the Peiræus until 404. We observe in a note by the author that, had space permitted, she would have included a Comparative Chronological Table "from the dawn of history to date," and that this will be published separately. If facts were all, the reader of this little book would be sufficiently equipped; no brain could carry more. The page on Vesuvius is now unhappily out of date. The phraseology is usually correct, but here and there is evidence that for Miss Guerber English is an acquired language. One does not speak of "herds" of geese and ducks (p. 117), nor can one allude to a Vandal Invasion as a "mode of death" (p. 22). Torquay is disguised as Torquai (p. 117); Mure, not Muir, is the name of the historian of Greek literature (p. 51); on the same page Shuckburgh is misspelt Shuckburg. These are slight blemishes on a useful little book that need not be depreciated as over-ambitious, since it is light in the hand and most compact and clearly printed.

We have received two more volumes (III. and IV.) of the "Gettysburg Edition" of Nicolay and Hay's 'Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln' made more complete as we have already specified (New York: Francis D. Tandy Co.). The portraits continue to present an interesting variety.

Two years ago, Mr. J. R. Tutin, of Hull, England, ventured a series of paper-bound "Orinda Booklets," an anthology of seventeenth-century English verse, which he has now followed up with a second series, but in the orthography of the original editions, with a minimum of editing. The four in hand include Katherine Phillips, Robert Heath, Henry Reynolds, and Thomas Flatman. In the same style but somewhat bulkier is a new set of "Pembroke Booklets," "for the general lover of our great Elizabethan, Jacobean and Carolinian Literature." Both issues are praiseworthy as selection, and typographically attractive.

The 'Ainu-English-Japanese Dictionary and Grammar' (pp. 525+159) of the Rev. John Batchelor, for over twenty-five years a resident in Yezo among the Ainu, and author of three other books on these aboriginal people of the Japanese archipelago, is issued in a second edition, greatly enlarged and with both Chinese characters and *kana* added to the Romanized Ainu and English (Tokio: Methodist Publishing House; London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.). To the dictionary and grammar proper he adds a discriminating chapter on "Ancient Japanese and Ainu Compared," and a most suggestive list, with commentary, of place-names in the archipelago. This English scholar expresses his regret that, in view of the desirability of criticism, so few persons are interested in Ainu. Besides making a book of the highest scientific value to students of Japanese and the Turanian or agglutinative languages, Mr. Batchelor argues for an Aryan origin of the Ainu tongue. He demonstrates to completion what Chamberlain had already in large measure pointed out, that the Chinese characters with which place-names in Japan are expressed are wholly misleading, and that the names of rivers and mountains and other landmarks in Japan are as surely Ainu (we may add) as are those in the United States Iroquois or Algonquin. It is creditable to note, by the way, that all official Japanese documents have dropped the old "Aino," popularly suggesting canine or at least brute origin, and now use the term Ainu (men). It is conclusively proved that the Ainu language has no general affinity with the Japanese. In the Turanian tongues (*e. g.*, Japanese) the root suffers no change. In Aryan, the change in the root is perhaps the most characteristic fact, and the Ainu grammar reveals in this respect a close affinity with Aryan morphology. A reading of the Dictionary discovers not only the narrow range of ideas of the Ainu, but at many points interesting similarities and differences. The argument in this book, on the linguistic side at least, shows that the basic stock of the people of Japan is a white or Aryan race.

In the 'Life of General Sir Andrew Clarke' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) we have a memoir of one who served the British Empire in the highest posts at home and abroad—Surveyor-General in Victoria with a seat on the Legislative Council, later Colonial Secretary; Director of Works at the Admiralty; Governor of the Straits Settlements; member of Council of the Viceroy of India; Inspector-General of Fortifications, etc. The book, which contains some interesting portraits, illustrations, and maps, is full of information as to persons, places, and events; but is wanting in individual human interest. It is rather a record than a well-digested biography. This is the more to be regretted in that Sir Andrew was at the centre of affairs in Tasmania during convict times; in Australia during the gold discovery; and in the Straits Settlements during reconstruction. He was evidently an able, high-minded, conscientious man of independent character, and with broad views of life and government. In reading this volume we have been reminded of the power of literature before other pursuits to give prominence to a name. Here is a man who governed provinces and left his impress on States, yet to most the name of Clarke recalls his cousin Marcus, the author of 'For the Term of his Natural Life.' A passage in Col. Clarke's interesting preface goes far to clear Mr. Gladstone of any blame regarding the fate of Gen. Gordon.

Under the title of 'Old Tales from Rome,' Miss Alice Zimmern has put into readable form for children a volume of legendary lore from Virgil and Livy, covering the ground of the Æneid and the period of the Kingship (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). The author would have done better, we think, to have kept her book free from any dependence upon the previous reading of her 'Old Tales from Greece.' At the end of the book she has placed a few adaptations from the Metamorphoses of Ovid, interesting enough in themselves, but damaging to the unity which her stories otherwise possess. We fear that not many eyes will be offended by her own (or the proof-reader's) metamorphosis of Typhō-eus into Typhœ-us. The successful efforts to make the book attractive to the eye in other ways should have been seconded by a little more care in the inking, which is somewhat uneven.

Though the Byzantine Empire of the eighth and ninth centuries stood somewhat apart from the more easily recognized currents of world development, yet, with plot and counterplot, iconoclast and anti-iconoclast, orthodoxy and heterodoxy seething within, and such ogres as Chumn the Bulgarian without, ready to make a drinking-bowl out of an emperor's skull if occasion offered, life in Eastern Europe in those days was anything but an unbroken round of dull monotony. Around the personality of Theodore of Studium, who figured in the iconoclastic controversy as an ardent and persistent advocate of the use of the sacred images, Miss Alice Gardner has constructed a very interesting and informing picture of the life of the time under the title of her hero (London: Edward Arnold).

In lighter and more popular form we have also from Armand Colin, Paris, a volume of biographical sketches by M. Charles Diehl, entitled 'Figures Byzantines.' M. Diehl covers about six centuries in his choice of subjects, touching Miss Gardner's period in but two cases, those of the Empress Irene and of Theoctista, the mother of Theodore of Studium. Readers of M. Diehl's 'Excursions Archéologiques en Grèce,' either in the original or in the English version, will not need to be assured that these sketches are at once scholarly and entertaining. The man who will teach English and American scholars the secret by which so many French prose writers pack so much lucid and interesting thought into so small a compass, will have effected a saving far beyond anything to be hoped for from our subsidized spelling-reformers.

Nothing daunted by adverse criticisms of his 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates,' Prof. H. R. Meyer offers "the second of a series of four books" on public regulation of industry. 'Municipal Ownership in Great Britain' (Macmillan) arraigns public management of transporta-

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tion and electric light and power. There is also a short chapter upon municipal gas plants, which should have been allotted more space, inasmuch as it is popularly supposed that British municipal trading has been especially successful in this field. Scorning "birds of passage who study problems on the spot," the author presents a purely objective study of official evidence. His work consists largely of quotations judiciously selected. His opponents may complain that the selection has been too discriminating, but whether he has presented more or less than half the story can be ascertained only after some one of a different attitude of mind has made as thorough a study of the same sources of information. With respect to the injurious Tramways act of 1870 and the inadequate Light Railways act of 1896, the author's conclusions will receive fairly general assent. The controversy over fares, however, is a long-standing one, and, even if Mr. Meyer's figures are unchallenged, his interpretation of them is sure to be questioned. The probabilities are that uniform fares would have relieved the congestion of British towns to a somewhat greater extent than graded fares have done, but the author seems not to realize that the problem is so complicated that there are intelligent as well as honest differences of opinion. It is unfortunate that skilful bargaining on the part of companies is characterized as "enlightened self-interest," while equal vigilance on behalf of the towns is persistently ascribed to the "greed" and "stupidity" of the "municipal politician." But if intellectual tolerance is not one of the merits of the book, moral earnestness is; and the work is one that cannot be lightly answered.

The latest addition to the literature of monetary problems is Joseph French Johnson's 'Money and Currency' (Ginn & Co.). Written for "practical men as well as students in high schools and colleges," the book avoids the pedantry and needless technical terminology that disfigure many works upon the subject. Within the moderate compass of 398 pages, and in simple and direct language, the author presents the essential facts and principles of money and credit. Long study of his subject, from a practical as well as a pedagogical point of view, has fitted him well for his task, and he has produced what should prove the best text in its field. Particularly to be commended are the careful analysis of the demand for money, the discussion of "fiat" money, and the treatment of the difficult subject of credit.

"The Home Library of Law," by Albert S. Bolles (Doubleday, Page & Co.), in six small volumes, is one of those courageous attempts at popularizing law in which enterprising publishers and authors display the perennial optimism that no experience of failure in this field ever entirely kills. There never has been written any popular law book, that we can remember, since Blackstone, and the reason lies on the surface—law is not popular, and genius alone can make it readable; even Blackstone is not popular except with students of law and government. Nevertheless, a new Blackstone may be born, and, if now living, it is the business of publishers to search for him and set him to work. It is small blame to Mr. Bolles if he does not turn out to be one. His qualifications for his task are inadequate, and his "Home Library of Law" cannot be recommended as anything more than one of many labored compendiums.

Not since Herder in his 'Kritische Wälder' attacked the validity of the conclusions as to the relation between poetry and art reached in Lessing's 'Laokoon,' has there appeared a more trenchant or original criticism of Lessing's æsthetic principles than that contained in Prof. Frank Egbert Bryant's treatise 'On the Limits of Descriptive Writing' (The Ann Arbor Press). The treatise, which forms number six of the "Contributions to Rhetorical Theory," edited by Prof. F. N. Scott of the University of Michigan, is remarkable not so much for learning—although the author's reading is wide and varied—as for the fresh and unbiassed manner in which he approaches subjects that to the great majority of scholars have seemed to be settled once for all. He certainly proves his point that the Homeric poems contain many descriptions of coexisting objects which it is in no way difficult for our imagination to conceive of as a whole; so that Lessing's insistence on the necessity of the poet's transforming coexisting objects into consecutive action in order to bring them clearly before our mind's eye, is shown to be without support from the very poet on whose alleged practice Lessing's theory is largely founded. Professor Bryant's treatise will be a most welcome help to college teachers who interpret and discuss Lessing's 'Laokoon' in the classroom.

"Our Plant Immigrants" is the title of the leading article in the *National Geographic Magazine* for April, in which Mr. David G. Fairchild describes, in a most instructive and interesting way, one of the means by which the Department of Agriculture is increasing the agricultural wealth of the country. After a too brief reference to his own six years' experience as an agricultural explorer in most of the promising plant-growing regions of the world, he tells how the great plant industries of the country, as the wheat, rice, and fig, are being changed or bettered by the introduction of new plants. Nearly twenty different varieties are being tested at the Government stations or by carefully chosen farmers. Among the problems now in process of solution are the finding of paying crops for the abandoned rice farms of the Carolinas, the introducing of hardy fruits into the Northwest, the improvement of the arctic agriculture of Alaska, and the substituting of a valuable for a worthless cane in the cane brakes of the South. Mr. Walter Wellman gives a description of the new airship or aeronef, now being constructed in France. It will have a carrying power of eight tons, with two motors, one of 50 the other of 25 horsepower, and will be maintained in the air from 20 to 25 days and travel at a speed of 12 miles an hour. There will, further, be a motor sledge. An interesting feature of the expedition is the plan to establish a wireless station at Hammerfest, Norway, another at the headquarters in Spitzbergen, 600 miles distant, and a third on the airship, by which it is believed that messages can be sent from the neighborhood of the Pole itself to the outer world. Mr. Wellman treats at length of his proposed methods of navigation, and gives some elaborate tables of wind velocities in the Arctic Ocean from *Fram* records. The expedition, which is financed by Mr. Victor Lawson, is planned to sail for Spitzbergen in June, where the headquarters for a two years' campaign will be established. The Board of Managers of the National Geographic Society have recorded their conviction that Mr. Wellman's plans "for reaching the North Pole are carefully and thoroughly considered, and give good promise of success." Major Henry E. Hersey has been appointed as a representative of the Society to accompany the expedition.

Our compatriot, the Rev. William Hayes Ward, makes in the last *Athenæum* a gallant attempt to explain once more and finally Milton's "two-handed engine at the door" in 'Lycidas,' which most commentators pass over in silence. He follows his predecessors in seeking the source of a Biblical allusion, and finds it in Ezekiel viii., ix. The "slaughter-weapon" of ix., 1 is the "engine" in question, whether translated maul or battle-axe. We shall offer no opinion as to the conclusiveness of this view. Dr. Ward finds the "smite once, and smite no more" clearly reminiscent of the words of Abishai to David in the presence of the sleeping and unguarded Saul.

—Gardens and gardening is the accentuated feature of the May *Century*. Frances Duncan describes the gardens of the group of artists and literary folk who have taken up their abodes at Cornish, New Hampshire, beginning with Augustus Saint-Gaudens, who set the pattern twenty years ago. Francis E. Leupp writes of the old Washington garden, at Mount Vernon, and, from the evidence of Washington's letters and diaries, almost exclusively negative, he is inclined to give the credit of it to Mrs. Washington. A plan of it, dated 1787, is shown at page 159. Ten years later Latrobe describes it in his Journal as "a neat flower garden, laid out in squares and boxed with great precision. . . . For the first time since I left Germany I saw here a parterre stripped and trimmed with infinite care into the form of a richly flourished fleur-de-lis, the expiring groan, I hope, of our grandfathers' pedantry." Another old garden, at Sharon, Connecticut, is described by Helen Evertson Smith, great-grandaughter of Mrs. John Cotton Smith, by whom the garden was developed into its permanent form in the years following the close of the Revolution. George W. Cable takes up the problem which always confronts the would-be gardener at the gate, "where to plant what." Luther D. Burbank jumps the hedge between botany and anthropology, and writes of "The Training of the Human Plant," contending that as marked and persistent improvements as he has succeeded in securing in plant life can be effected in human life by analogous methods. Under the title of "Reflex Light from Africa," Charles Francis Adams expresses some very positive views with reference to the condition and capacity of the negro race, and the treatment it should receive where subject to our jurisdiction. His views challenge discussion at almost every point, but, as a corrective of his pessimistic attitude toward the negro's inherent capacity for improvement, we need only refer the reader to the evidence which the editor has supplied in "Topics of the Time," from recent scientific studies of the

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negro in Africa by Prof. Franz Boas, published in the *Ethical Record* of March, 1904, and to the three works on the African race reviewed on another page.

—The April bill of fare of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde), as presented by Mr. Henry Bradley—Matter-Mesnalty—will richly reward scrutiny. The claim of this work to be compiled "on historical principles" lurks subtly in the sudden blossoming out of the word Melodrama, first quoted from Southey in 1809. In the breathing-space of the Napoleonic wars afforded by the Peace of Amiens (1802), the British flocked in multitudes to Paris, and made acquaintance with this form of spectacle (from which the melodic element has by our time quite evaporated). Hence the immediate invasion of English literature by the name and its derivatives. The *form* was restored to that of the Greek component parts, and the French accent discarded. Similarly, Memoir was anglicized without the accent and the final *e*, and fully naturalized, yet in pronunciation the best English usage retains the French sound of *w* before the *oir*—as Mr. Bradley suggests, because this termination is unfamiliar in English. The foreign origin asserts itself again in Mélange, taken over as early as 1653, and indifferently written with or without the accent; its outlandishness continues to be felt. It is not much otherwise with Mêlée (1648), which displaced Mellay, Melling, and Melly, somewhat to our loss. Ménage tends to cling to its accented vowel; Menagerie appears never to have cumbered itself with it. The throes of naturalization or assimilation are often very prolonged. We may notice the process in Debris and Plebiscit and Proletariat beside the perhaps more common French aspects, and in the wavering pronunciation of Menu. To clear our deck of French notes, Mazarine (a dish) is dubiously ascribed either to Cardinal Mazarin, who died in 1662, or to the Duchesse de Mazarin, who died at Chelsea in 1699, with the local weight of derivation in her favor. The dish (1673) somewhat antedates the blue color (1686). Finally, we owe our use of Mentor rather to Fénelon through 'Télémaque' than to Homer and the Odyssey direct; and our application of it to things as well as persons finds a warrant in Rousseau as cited by Littré.

—History is embalmed in a quotation from Lord Salisbury (1897): "A common intellectual complaint . . . which I may name (as I see Mr. Gladstone has consecrated the word) Megalomania—the passion for big things simply because they are big"—a definition which has hardly maintained itself beside 'overweening self-conceit.' Mr. Gladstone's "consecration" does not appear to have been picked up for the Dictionary; but he did not invent the term, as Bentham did Meliorability (1811-1831), which fell on stony ground, though a useful vocable and ready to anybody's hand who chooses to revive it, albeit in this age of the white man's burden we hear less of capacity for improvement and the perfectibility of man. George Eliot (1877) ventured the term Meliorism for the doctrine that the world may be made better by rightly directed human effort; and in the same year she wrote: "I don't know that I ever heard anybody use the word Meliorist except myself." Nevertheless, Dr. John Brown, in his 'Horæ Subsecivæ' (1858), proclaimed himself a Meliorist. These cross-quotations, introduced side by side chronologically, are entertaining. Mr. Bradley himself holds "to make mention of" "to be now slightly archaic and literary;" yet his first definition of the verb Mention is 'to make mention of.' Again, in illustrating the idiomatic use of Mend, he says, "We do not speak of mending a house"—although we might? And shortly, in the sense of 'improve,' Tennyson is quoted:

> "How mend the dwellings of the poor."

Mend, by the way, is aphetic from Amend, but, oddly enough, the abbreviated form is encountered before the full.

—Words have their fates, and curious it is to think of Mensk, 'humanity, honor, dignity, reverence,' with numerous derivatives, flourishing from the 13th to the 16th centuries and then dropping quite out of sight —"rugged names" that ceased, perhaps, to be "sleek" to British mouths grown less rugged. We have lost, further, Memorous in favor of Memorable; and the poets, those dainty scavengers of speech, have not cared to save J. Semple's Melancounterous, 'ill-timed.' Nor has Crabbe, on the other hand, caused to prevail his penultimate accentuation of Mercan'tile (not noticed by Mr. Bradley), or his monosyllabic rhyming of Mayor. Dr. Johnson has been more potent in sustaining the dissyllabic pronunciation of Medicine (med'sn), which mounts to the fourteenth century at least; for the less common trisyllabic pronunciation is in England "by many objected to as either pedantic or vulgar," whereas it predominates in Scotland and in the United States. We conclude with some interesting reading to be found under the verb May: "Like other past subjunctives, *might* is frequently used in a sense which differs from that of the present form not temporally, but modally. . . . The fact that *might* thus admits of three different meanings is sometimes productive of ambiguity, which has to be avoided by recourse to some different form of expression." "In poetry, *might* was sometimes nearly equivalent to 'did.' This use is strikingly characteristic of the style of Gibbon." "In the eighteenth century it was common to use *might be* or *do* in the sense of 'perhaps was' or 'did.'"

—In 1903 appeared the fifth volume of Prof. Paul Fredericq's monumental 'Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ,' carrying the series down to 1528, and now, in 1906, we have the third volume, which is devoted to completing the first and second, with 146 additional documents, ranging from 1236 to 1513 (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke). The work of research is never ending, and though, if the whole mass of material in these first three volumes could have been fused into a single series, it would be more convenient to students, the author who should wait until he had gathered everything before printing would never begin to print, for he could never feel sure that his task was completed. Moreover, Professor Fredericq has reduced to a minimum the inconvenience of his method by furnishing in this volume a complete chronological list of the 690 documents contained in the three, together with an extended index to the whole, occupying more than 200 pages. As in the previous issues, a very generous definition of the word heresy enables him to bring together a number of most interesting documents, gathered not only from printed sources but from the archives and MSS. of the Netherlands, of Paris, and of the Vatican. Such a collection as this illustrates emphatically the modern spirit in which history is studied and written, neglecting no detail and requiring exhaustive research into the original sources, in order to verify, by documentary evidence, everything that can be verified. Professor Fredericq has thus accomplished so much in his chosen field that all students of the period will await with impatience the continuation of his labors through the reigns of Charles V. and Philip II., when the annals of the Netherlands were written in characters of fire and blood.

—Fogazzaro's last novel, 'Il Santo,' noticed at length in these columns, has finally been put upon the Index. The fact, taken in connection with other recent incidents, is of great interest as showing the policy likely to be followed by the present Pope. Hitherto he has seemed to hesitate and vacillate, but the path he has now entered upon is that of intolerance. As the *Corriere della Sera* says: "We return to the times of Pius IX., with the bad distinction, however, that between Pius IX. and Pius X. there came the pontificate of Leo XIII., which marked a period of progress and comparative liberty, and that in the last thirty years ideas have gone ahead." The condemnation of 'Il Santo' follows close upon the incident of Bishop Bonomelli, who, it is now asserted, owed it to the intervention of a friend high in power that he was not cited before the Holy Inquisition. It is known, too, that, in the entourage of the Pope, whoever is suspected of broad and liberal views is sure to fall into disfavor, so that it is not doubtful that the censure of Fogazzaro's book is a blow directed at the whole party of progress in the Church. It includes, of course, such Catholics as Brunetière, who had just finished the publication of the French version of 'Il Santo' in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the editor of the German Catholic review, *Hochland*, which, besides translating the book, has published a series of articles highly laudatory of its author. Of course, even a Pope is but a feeble obstacle against the current of modern thought; at the same time, it is a keen disappointment to the better part of the faithful that a Pope of the gentle and kindly character of Pio X. should decide to throw his weight on the side of *intransigenza*.

—"Das Blumenboot" ("The Flower Boat"), a four-act drama written in thirteen months, is the last play by Hermann Sudermann since his "Stein unter Steinen," and shows in general the recent tendencies of the author. Baroness Erfflingen, daughter of a banker and wife of a reckless spendthrift, has enjoyed the forbidden pleasures of the world for years, drawing her income from the toil of a plebeian son-in-law, once a clerk and now manager in the banking establishment, to whom she has given her elder daughter, Raffaela, in marriage; and now she counsels the younger child, Thea, whose hand is sought by the impecunious Count Sperner, to marry

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the Count for his social position, but to hold her affections free for others, that she may finally "become what she *is*." According to provisions made by the founders of the banking-house, a family council is held to approve the match, and the plodding son-in-law, Brösemann, seeing additional drains on the bank that his resources cannot meet, interposes such a spirited objection that he thwarts the plan of the Baroness, and the engagement is not concluded. A dare-devil cousin, Fred, recently installed in the bank, steps in the breach and wins the hand of the girl. They are no sooner married, however, than they are face to face with a dramatic situation: Fred has promised Thea, before he knew that he would marry her, to take her on her wedding night to a low dive in town, to meet there, as she expects, various actors of the city theatre. The young wife demands the fulfilment of the promise, and the excursion is made; champagne, song and smoke upset her reason; she falls, glass in hand, ere her husband can persuade her to leave, and finally returns to her new home, dimly conscious of the scars that can never be effaced. Raffaela commenced her married life true to prosaical Brösemann, and was inclined to flee from the attentions of Doctor von Schwerthe, who crossed her path; she even besought her husband to give up his business and take her away, but he saw in her request only a desire to travel. Thea, meanwhile, citing the mother's example, urges her into the liaison, and later, when a great flower-festival is held in the evening at the country seat, begs Raffaela in vain not to keep her appointment at midnight with her unlawful lover. Raffaela promises to retire; but while Fred and Thea are in passionate dispute—he asserting his wish to throw aside the trashy pleasures of life and be a man, and she declaring her purpose to continue on the downward course to which he has impelled her, but to continue alone, on her own responsibility—a woman's cry is heard in the park. Brösemann has returned home unexpectedly, to meet and shoot the wrecker of his home on the river bank. Blood-stained, he enters the house a moment after Raffaela has rushed to her room, takes cool leave of the terrified Baroness, whose first thought is to cover the crime, and, with a word of farewell, transfers the banking business to Fred; and in their hour of common shame and need, Fred and Thea feel for the first time the passion of worthy love.

THREE WORKS ON AFRICAN RACES.

The Native Races of South Africa: A History of the Intrusion of the Hottentots and Bantu into the Hunting-grounds of the Bushmen, the Aborigines of the Country. With numerous illustrations. By George W. Stowe, F.G.S., F.R.G.S. Edited by George McCall Theall, Litt.D., LL.D., Formerly Keeper of the Archives of the Cape Colony, etc., etc. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905. Pp. xvi., 618.

The East Africa Protectorate. By Sir Charles Eliot, K.C.M.G., Late H.M. Commissioner for the Protectorate. With illustrations and maps. London: Edward Arnold. 1905. Pp. xii., 334.

The Masai, their Language and Folk-Lore. By A. C. Hollis. With introduction by Sir Charles Eliot. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905. Pp. xxviii., 359.

These three books represent as many different points of view and as many aspects of book-making. The first is the compilation (since edited by another and abler hand) of a settler of long and varied experience, a geologist, but without exact scientific method in ethnology. The labor of the editor (the chaptering, paragraphing, and index are his) in getting the original unwieldy mass into some sort of order must have been very great. The second is the work of an administrator, who gives, in untechnical language, an account of the peoples and policies with which he has been concerned for several years. The third is a valuable contribution to anthropological science by one who has come into close individual contact with the uncivilized race of which it treats.

Mr. Stow's book was compiled before 1880, the date of his preface, and after the author's death the MS. was purchased from the widow by Miss Lucy C. Lloyd, said to be "the greatest living authority upon the Bushmen," and by her entrusted to Dr. Theall to edit for publication. As printed, it contains a mass of valuable and interesting information accumulated by the author during the years 1843-1880. The photographs of Bushmen were added from Miss Lloyd's excellent collection. In the lapse of twenty-five years, however, not a little of the text has naturally become merely auxiliary, or even antiquated. This does not affect much that is Mr. Stow's personal contribution to our knowledge of the South African aborigines. The twenty-six chapters, into which the volume is divided, discuss the following topics: The Bushmen and their antiquity, their habits, weapons and implements, methods of hunting, and fishing, social customs, modes of burial, various tribal groups, struggle for existence; encroachment of the stronger races; tribes of the West Coast; the Koranas, the Griquas, the Baastards (and Barend Barends, their original chief); the Bechuana and Basutu; the Mantatees, Baralong, and Bakuena. The tale of the progressive extermination of the Bushmen by the European colonists, and, before them, by the Hottentot and Bantu invaders, is the familiar story of the oppression of the weak by the strong, and the author makes it the main point of his book. First Bushmen, then Hottentot, then Bantu, would appear to have been the general southward movement of the races; the last, apparently, had not crossed the Orange River until the Dutch had long been settled in South Africa. Mr. Stow fixes, without particular proof, the immigration of the Hottentots at "about the end of the fourteenth century" (p. 249). The age of the oldest Bushman painting is thought to be about four hundred years (p. 26), while to the older rock-"sculptures," with no very accurate determination of geologic and other conditions, an antiquity of twelve centuries is assigned (p. 30), *e. g.*, to the great eland of the Riverton Island of the Vaal. The cave-paintings and the chipped outlines of animal figures Mr. Stow attributes to two entirely different branches of the Bushman race, the "sculptors," or kopje-dwellers, and the "painters," or cave-dwellers, who arrived by separate migratory routes. But there is no real reason for such a view, which is both untenable and unnecessary. Change of habitat and local conditions account well enough for such divergent forms of primitive art-activity.

The descent of the Hottentots and Bushmen from a common stock is a view somewhat favored by Mr. Stow, although he ultimately styles the latter a race apart from all others. It may be mentioned here that, at the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at Cape Town in 1905, Prof. F. von Luschan, the well-known German anthropologist, advanced the opinion that the Hottentots are the result of a Hamitic-Bushman intermixture. Hamitic, or, as some hold, Semitic blood may also be traceable in the Bantu, who are hardly a pure Negro race in the belief of many authorities. The Mongolian affinities suggested on page 16 may be ruled out of court. Primitive as are the Bushmen, in many respects, we are assured (p. 60) that "they had several modes of cooking, viz., boiling, roasting or broiling, and baking." The suggestion (p. 83) that the custom of representing deities with the heads and coverings of birds and animals goes back to the use of such disguises as the Bushmen employ in hunting, is worth noting. A tendency toward monogamy among the Bushmen is said to be due to the "extreme jealousy and passionate disposition of the women." Instances of Bushman influence upon other peoples are seen in the clicks of the Hottentots and the spread of the game known as "Bushman cards." The symbiosis of the Hottentots and the Bushmen in the seventeenth century is an interesting sociological phenomenon comparable to the similar state of affairs existing between some of the pygmy tribes farther north and their neighbors of larger stature and greater power. The Griquas, who bear the name of an ancient Hottentot clan, are really a race of mixed-bloods, the result of the intercourse of the old Dutch colonists with Hottentot (and also Bushman) women. To these half-breeds was attached the term "Bastaards," which did not carry in Africa the stigma it has in Europe. Very interesting indeed is the story of these Griquas and their semi-European chiefs, of whose lives and exploits some account is given. The Basuto and related tribes, who have a love for agriculture, and a certain social system enabling them to survive in considerable strength through the ages (a political combination in the early part of the nineteenth century laid the sure foundations of their later growth), are one of the virile elements in South Africa, and are, apparently (under the ægis of British protection), building up a state that may illustrate the virtues and capacities of the Bantu race in a permanent and convincing fashion. But one needs to add to the data in Mr. Stow's book the results of inquiry and investigation during the period 1880-1906, and then he has a tale of Bushmen-extermination and of Basuto development that must excite alike the pity and the admiration of mankind.

Sir Charles Eliot, the author of 'The East Africa Protectorate,' was H. M. Commissioner from January, 1901, to June, 1904 ("these were perhaps the happiest and most interesting years of my life"), re-

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signing his office on account of disagreement with the policy of the Foreign Office. He took this step "because I was ordered to cancel grants made by me to private persons in conformity with my general instructions, and to cancel them in a way which seemed to me wholly unjust and liable to accusations of favoritism, for I was at the same time directed to give the East Africa Syndicate a grant of ten times the size of the others, and in the same district, on unusually favorable terms, which were in themselves disadvantageous to the general interests of the Protectorate." The excuse of the Government was that the area in question was intended as a native reserve, and private grants would interfere with the rights of the aborigines. But the East Africa Syndicate received its grant of 500 square miles, such rights notwithstanding. While Sir Charles does not make this book a personal polemic, he points out clearly some of the defects (and worse) of the British administration of this region. The disproportionate expenditure on the Uganda railway contrasts sharply with the parsimony exercised in all other departments. The "absolute lack of administrative organization" makes the land question (the part of the country best adapted for Europeans has been declared a native reserve) a matter of the gravest concern. To this part of the world, indeed, may betake themselves some of the American criminals whom a recent treaty excludes from San Marino, for we are told (p. 185) that "it is held that the sovereign rights of the Crown over a Protectorate are not sufficient to justify extradition." The arrangement with the Sultan of Zanzibar shows that the British negotiators were less cunning, or less worldly-wise, than the Germans.

Besides geographical and historical information and a discussion of the administration of the Protectorate (past, present, and to come), there are several chapters devoted to "East Africa as a European Colony," and to the various native tribes (Swahilis, Somalis, and other Bantu-speaking peoples, Masai Suk, Nandi, etc.). Sir Charles Eliot is of opinion that there is "no considerable difference between pure negroes and the Bantu races," and there is certainly ground for the belief that such differences have been exaggerated by some authorities. Less tenable, however, is his dictum (p. 101) as to "the absence of any feeling for art in the African." The religiosity of some of these African peoples is probably underestimated, and the author is rather unduly exercised about their nudity. Some of the statements concerning the native tribes of East Africa are of more than usual interest. Of the Baganda, whom Sir Charles considers "incomparably the most intelligent and progressive of the natives of Eastern Africa," we are informed further (p. 99): "If they continue to advance at their present rate, they will rival the Japanese in their power of assimilating European culture, and become a factor of the highest importance in the future history of the African continent." This statement ought to give some of our American negrophobes pause. The possibility of an overwhelming of the nascent intellect in adult (racial) arrest is suggested for these negroes, as it has also been put forward for the Japanese, with no proofs as yet forthcoming. The Somalis are very intelligent, but lack some of the good qualities of the Baganda. The Masai have long been "perhaps the most interesting and important race in the country"; they are mostly warlike nomads, with a social system based on military ideals, and behind them a history of raids and depredations. The L-Oikop, however, are a section of the Masai who have settled down and become agriculturists. The future of the Masai proper is one of the great difficulties of the situation in East Africa; the author remarks (p. 143): "They resemble the lion and the leopard, strong and beautiful beasts of prey, that please the artistic sense, but are never of any use, and often a serious danger." The hope is that they may ultimately imitate their less warlike and nomadic kinsmen and take to agriculture. The Akikuyu have been influenced by Masai blood, but the adoption of their language by the incomers proves once more the remarkable power of expansion and survival evidenced by Bantu speech. The Wakamba are said to lag behind the Kikuyu people in vigor and intelligence, although one of the largest and most important tribes of East Africa.

As a matter of general principle, Sir Charles Eliot is "opposed to the creation in this Protectorate of native reserves, meaning by that name not plots of land kept here and there to meet the needs of natives, but territories in which natives are segregated and left to themselves." Such reserves "tend to perpetuate bad customs and to retard civilization and missionary work." Improvement of the East African races, according to the author, will come best from "encouraging mixed breeds —not, of course, between Europeans and natives, but between the various tribes." A good blend may be obtained from the Masai-Somali and the Wanyika-Wakamba. Unlike Uganda, which is thickly populated by black men, the thinly inhabited East Africa Protectorate, with much of its territory suitable for European colonization, is destined to be "a white man's country," or, rather, if the ideas of Sir Charles (he deprecates the establishment of both Jewish and East Indian colonists) be adopted, an Anglo-Saxon's country. This view, in an extreme form, is advocated by A. Johnston, in a recent article in the *Journal* of the African Society, where the demand is made for "a 'British first' policy for this healthy territory," with "administration for a time in water-tight compartments" for the rest of the population. The Englishman and the Babu get along together no better in East Africa than in Hindustan, and Sir Charles Eliot is unable to agree with Sir Harry Johnston's declaration that "East Africa ought to be the America of India." The Jews, he argues, have no real agricultural sense, and East Africa "would seem to be a country rather for those who have hereditary and personal experiences of agriculture than for those who are new to the pursuit" (p. 178). So much for the country in general, but in a cosmopolitan seaport like Mombasa, the point of customs-levy for East Africa, "the intermixture of races does not much matter." The trolley-system of this city consisted of "small carriages running on rails and pushed by native boys." Mombasa has at least three racial and social strata, "the Arab-Swahili, the Indian, and the European," and it has had, indeed, a checkered history. Cosmopolitan Mombasa and East Africa as a "white man's land" will be fertile subjects for the future student of the race-problems of the Dark Continent.

Mr. Hollis, whose volume on the language and folk-lore of the Masai is a very creditable performance, was Chief Secretary to the Administration of the East Africa Protectorate, and, like Sir Charles Eliot, his superior, a good friend of the missionaries, to whose labors both give unstinted praise. The author had at his services a Christian convert, one Olomeni, an Oikop, or Lumbwa Masai, from whom was obtained a good deal of the material here published. This consists of a sketch of the grammar of the language (pages 1-102) and collection of Masai stories, proverbs and legends, enigmas, myths and traditions, with interlinear and free translations, besides the description in Masai and English (parallel columns) of a large number of native customs, etc. (pp. 282-356). This mass of authoritative data will be welcomed heartily by the philologist and the folk-lorist, who so rarely get material as well suited to their common needs. The closest affinities of the Masai language appear to be with Latuka, then with Bari, and more remotely with Dinka, the Nandi-Lumbwa and Suk-Turkana groups, etc. The animal tales of the Masai include many of the "Uncle Remus" type, the cunning and mischievous hare corresponding often to "Br'er Rabbit"; the story of the hare and the elephants (p. 107) is characteristic. As an example of African humor may serve the tale of the caterpillar and the wild animals (p. 184). The proverbs and sayings, of which seventy-five are given, reflect, in interesting fashion, the environment and experiences of the Masai. To our "Don't count your chickens before they are hatched," corresponds "Don't make a cloth for carrying a child in before the child is born"; to our "The last shall be first, and the first last," corresponds, quite in line with the warlike history of the Masai, "The slayer of the enemy has become a coward, and the poltroon has become a brave man." Very expressive also are the following: "The night has ears," "A bull cannot bellow in two places at once," "Do not repair another man's fence until you have seen to your own." The myths and legends of the Masai are consistent with long residence in East Africa, and there is no real proof for the theory advocated by Merker, in his 'Die Masai' (Berlin, 1904), that the cosmogonic traditions, religious ideas, etc., of this people belong to the primitive *fond* of the ancient Hebrews and Babylonians, and are as old as these. But such close resemblances as may exist are rather to be accounted for by more recent Arab and Christian sources.

The following story, included among the "myths and traditions" (p. 278), deserves citation in its entirety, as an example of primitive statement of the relativity of things as they are: "When it rains, the goats say, 'The enemy have beaten us,' and they run away and hide themselves; but the sheep say, 'Mother has oiled us,' and they remain out in the rain. When the sun burns fiercely, the sheep say, 'The enemy have beaten us,' and go and hide themselves in the shade; but the goats say, 'Mother has oiled us,' and stay in the sun." The love of the Masai for their cattle, and the important part these animals

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play in the life of the people, are fully illustrated in the customs recorded. Their saying runs, "God gave us cattle and grass; we do not separate the things which God has given us." The Masai are said to possess the most definite religious beliefs of all the tribes of the East Africa Protectorate, and a point of comparison with even Anglo-Saxon practices is revealed by the observation on page 344: "The Masai women often pray twice daily. Men and children usually only pray in time of drought, or when a cattle plague is raging." Woman, therefore, has had poetic justice done to her when the commonest word for "God" in the language, *Eng-ai*, is a substantive with a *feminine* article.

If one reads together the books of Sir Charles Eliot and Mr. Hollis, one will get a good general and scientific account of a people as interesting, perhaps, as any in all Africa, and be informed to protest against the inhuman spirit of militarism, which seeks to drive the native to the wall all over the globe, instead of preparing him to enjoy more fully the land that has been his from time immemorial.

DE GUERVILLE'S NEW EGYPT.

New Egypt. By A. B. De Guerville. E. P. Dutton & Co.

A Frenchman's story of English rule in Egypt, for such is the Egypt of to-day, attracts us, and as we proceed to read it, De Guerville's treatment of the delicate subject excites our admiration for his candor. His book is not conspicuously interesting as a description of the scenery or the antiquities of the Nile, but these can be read in any Guide and in a host of treatises by Egyptologists, or in innumerable sketches by casual travellers. Its shortcomings, therefore, in these respects can be forgiven, in consideration of the statements and opinions from rulers, statesmen, and leading financiers which he professes to give at first hand, on all the intricate political and industrial subjects which have made the Egyptian question one of the puzzles of modern diplomacy. Appearing, as it did, just when the Morocco Conference was trying to decide one of the side issues of the Egyptian problem, it helps us to appreciate the tenacity with which France is fighting for supremacy in Northwestern Africa. Through vacillation and timidity during the Arabi rebellion she lost her position in Egypt, which England assumed, and which subsequently, through a chain of circumstances that no one could possibly have foreseen, England was obliged, at first against her honest intentions, but now most willingly, to maintain. By the recent treaty between England and France, which was intended to settle the Newfoundland, the Egyptian, and other of their international complications, France recognized England's rights in Egypt, and England agreed that, as far as she was concerned, France should control Morocco.

Following the graphic story of the suicidal extravagance of Ismail Pasha, which plunged Egypt into bankruptcy and made her the slave of the financiers of Europe, and our author's views of the mistaken attitude of France during and after the Arabi rebellion, one of the most interesting chapters describes the simple domestic and the busy official life of the young Khedive, Abbas Halmi. He is fostering, by his own exertions and with his own capital, the agricultural and industrial interests of Egypt, and actually governing his country wisely and with a certain degree of initiative, under the suggestion and the protection of England, which really thwarts him less arbitrarily than a refractory legislative body sometimes hampers a restless and independent constitutional ruler or president. Abbas Halmi, when he ascended the throne in 1892 as a youth of eighteen, on the abdication of his extravagant grandfather, was impelled by his own inclinations and the advice of officious friends to cross swords with the English representative. M. de Guerville tells the result in his own explicit manner.

"A certain number of the *entourage*, along with several foreigners, more or less connected with friendly governments, all fishers in troubled waters, took advantage of this state of affairs to urge the young sovereign, then without experience, to a complete rupture with England, assuring him that, on the day of the struggle, French bayonets and Russian Cossacks would be there to back him up. Very brave, very sure of himself, the Khedive one day took the great step and showed England the door; then, looking round for his backers, he found . . . space. Those even who had most strongly persuaded him had quietly disappeared."

He soon came to appreciate England's sincere desire to help him to regenerate his country, and since that youthful ebullition he has recognized in Lord Cromer his best friend and his stanchest ally.

Unlike his forefathers, he is satisfied and happy with one wife, whose five children make a charming group of chubby boys and girls. In addition to punctual attention to the duties of state, he has reclaimed from the desert a large tract on the Ismailia Canal, whose cultivation he himself superintends; and out of his own resources he is building a shore line, the Mariut Railroad, from Alexandria to the border of Tripoli. Our author had the pleasure of accompanying the Khedive on a tour of inspection over this railroad, where

"charming little villages, constructed by his Highness, replace here and there the wretched tents in which the Bedouins lived; there is no doubt that the inhabitants of this lost and forgotten land are only too pleased that the Khedive has come to call them to another and a better existence. If at first they were somewhat shy, to-day they have become quite friendly, and they await with impatience the time when the line shall be completed, and a regular and paying trade established between the rich country of Tripoli and the markets of Alexandria and Cairo."

He adds:

"We had our refreshment at the actual terminus, in the doorway of a small house, simple as the tent of a soldier, in which the Khedive resides occasionally when inspecting the works, and from which we could hear the Bedouins, under the direction of his Highness's officers, singing at their task of completing the two hundred miles which still separates them from the frontier of Tripoli."

The glimpses of the Khedival activity certainly falsify the popular impressions of the home life and the occupations of an Oriental ruler, but it may be doubted whether they are duplicated in any Eastern court between the Mediterranean and the Sea of Japan.

All through the book the presence of England is almost obtrusively forced upon the reader. When the author first arrives in Alexandria in the Grand Square, he admires, "superb on his horse of bronze, the statue of Mohammed Ali Pasha, the founder of the reigning house."

"Some few steps further on," he says, "another statue, this time a living one, caught my eye. On a beautiful well-groomed half-bred, an Egyptian cavalryman, erect and unmoving, stiff in his sombre uniform, mounted guard. A finer soldier one could not wish to see. His bronzed skin, black moustache, dark eyes, slender body, straight and supple, made up the ideal of a cavalry soldier. It was with men such as these that the great Pasha made of Egypt a Power. My thoughts are quickly disturbed. Across the square, with the dull tread of marching feet, comes a company of English soldiers. They are boys, beardless boys, almost delicate-looking, clad in unbecoming khaki, and their childish faces almost swallowed up in immense helmets. Can it be that these youths are the conquerors of this dark and warlike figure seated unmoved on his lovely steed?"

When our author reaches the end of his travels in the Sudan, the English are still in evidence, and though his regret that the French do not occupy their place can hardly be disguised, the regret does not degenerate into acrid jealousy or into unfair criticism. He tells in this connection that

"Lord Kitchener, who, seventeen years later, was to vanquish the Dervishes and reconquer the Sudan, was on board Admiral Seymour's flagship during the bombardment of Alexandria as a simple spectator. Immediately after the bombardment, which opened Egypt to the English, he landed with Mr. John Ross, and, going to his house, indulged in a brandy and soda, just as he drank another with Capt. Marchand at Fashoda on the morrow of the events which definitely assured the supremacy of England in the valley of the Nile. The bombardment was the first act, as Fashoda was the last, marking the decline of French influence, the decline which began on that memorable day when the French fleet disappeared on the horizon, and, abandoning Alexandria to the English cannon, carried with it the last hope of those who dreamt of an Egypt, great, strong, and prosperous, under the guiding hand of France."

For what happened during these seventeen years and in the Sudan during the subsequent seven years, he gives the English full credit, but he does not arrogate too much for the French when he claims that the most important works lately executed in Egypt were suggested and often begun by Frenchmen. The *barrage*, for instance, the first dam thrown across the Nile at the head of the Delta, was actually built by French engineers. And he approves the stricture of a correspondent who claims that Cromer, in his reports, "would not have detracted a whit from the glory of England if he had stated that the work already accomplished by the French had served as a point of departure for all the important improvements which they have been able to accomplish." Still, he does not flatter himself or his countrymen with any hope of the renewal of French influence, and he reproves M. de Freycinet for unjustly interpreting England's motives at the time of the occupation.

"She had," he admits, "no desire to enter, *manu militari*, into Egypt, she did everything which lay in her power to avoid doing so, but, forced to do so, she sought to have France with her. I will add that the same 'combination of unheard-of circumstances' which led to the decline of French influence forced England to remain in Egypt. Neither this French decline nor this English ascendancy is 'temporary.' The

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time of dreams is passed. It must now be recognized that English influence in Egypt is so deeply rooted that she has nothing to fear, and that, politically speaking, French influence has ceased to exist. I say politically, for the Egyptian, who formerly had two countries, 'his own and Paris,' will always have for France feelings of friendship and affection such as he will never have for any other people. In his character, his tastes, his ideas, and his inclinations, he approaches much nearer to the French than to the English. He can become a sincere and devoted friend to the former, *who treats him as an equal*, but never to the latter, who, on every occasion, asserts his superiority and treats him as an inferior. The Egyptian appreciates what England has done for his country; he is grateful, but coldly, and without enthusiasm. Lord Cromer is feared, respected, admired, but not loved; he is the savior and the judge in whom he has absolute confidence, but he is also the man who, while saving him, has left on his skin the marks of a strong hand."

The Fashoda incident is as inexplicable to De Guerville in its motive as it is to other spectators with fewer means of information. He absolves Marchand from the charge of cowardice or pusillanimity, and accords him all the praise due him for his wonderful march across the Bahr-el-Ghazal to the Nile; nor does he blame the Government of France for rectifying some one's grievous mistake by the only retreat possible, that of accepting England's offer to extend every hospitality to Capt. Marchand and his brave companions. The resurrection of the Sudan, and its new life, which M. de Guerville grows eloquent in describing, would have been arrested had the two great Powers which are, each in its own way, trying to civilize northern Africa, gone to war instead of exchanging compliments over the incident. Only on two remote and improbable contingencies can the Marchand adventure be feebly justified.

"Supposing Kitchener, instead of being victorious over the Dervishes, had been beaten, as Hicks, Gordon, and others had been. The thing was not impossible. Now, supposing again that a large Abyssinian army had joined Marchand, and that under his leadership they had fallen on the Dervishes from the rear and crushed them, he would have reconquered Khartum. The situation in that case would have been different, and France would have been in reality mistress of the Sudan."

With this quotation we must close a book as readable by reason of its style as by its intrinsic merit.

The Story of My Life. By Father George Gapon. With illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906.

This autobiography of the Russian priest who for a short time filled the public eye as leader of the demonstration ending in "Bloody Sunday" (January 26, 1905), in St. Petersburg, is now accessible in book form, having originally appeared as a serial. The opportunity thus furnished for the study of a curious character has considerable value, from a psychological point of view. A creature of moods, earnest, enthusiastic, fickle, illogical, critical of others, convinced that he is a grand exception to the ordinary rule of mankind, he ingenuously writes himself down as fast-bound within the limits of that rule in virtue of the narrowness of his experience, which seemed to him original. He is not universal, in the sense applied to the great writers of the world; but he is commonplace, in a variation of that sense. For example, his generalizations about the "ignorant and greedy clergy" of Russia in all probability have been uttered with equal justice and injustice of the clergy in every land, Christian or heathen, where ecclesiastics have existed. The same is true regarding the accusation of Pharisaism, neglect of opportunities, and so forth. Had he, as a schoolboy in any other land, neglected his studies and indulged in outspoken criticism of things and people, he would equally have been reprimanded. When he records the "sad fact" that all the best pupils of the Ecclesiastical Seminary became laymen, leaving only the "ignorant, incapable, or depraved" for the Church, he forgets to mention that such seminaries do not aim to educate exclusively for the priesthood (any more than does Trinity School); and is, evidently, unaware of that familiar English saying, "The fool of the family is put into the Church," which brilliant and noble ecclesiastics have proven false, as abundant similar examples in his own land have falsified his rash condemnation. Had he known of the existence of the whipping-post in Delaware, a fine paragraph would have been spoiled; and had he ever been present at great devotional gatherings (such as camp-meetings) in other lands, he might have collected instances of practical solicitude as to material things which would have paralleled his mother's wide-awakeness to the pigs in the garden during her prayers (compare George Sand's 'Winter in Majorca'), and, incidentally, established the disconcerting fact that devoutness is a question of individuals, not of ecclesiastical organizations. He criticises the monks and clergy at a monastery for "mimicking the Metropolitan." All present, including himself, were, undoubtedly, following the prescribed forms.

His description of certain police and factory methods which he regards as unusual will not appear so here, after our own experiences; neither will his account of the Russian equivalent of our friend the "walking delegate," who, himself formerly a workman, lived in luxurious apartments and kept Father Gapon waiting long for an audience.

That Father Gapon must be a man of parts and of attractive personality is evident from the favors he received at the hands of highly-placed persons, and from his career in general. But his instability of mind, the regularity of his oscillations between extremes (in his views of his priestly office, for instance) eventually weary the reader, as do his constant attribution of jealous motives to every one who opposes him, and his self-laudation as to motives and preaching. He announces as his original programme the diversion of the workingman's mind from political ideas; then reprobates it as an invention of the secret police, and brands it as "a pretence of a struggle for economic concessions." When he preaches honest labor, sobriety, and mutual help to the workmen, they go wild with enthusiasm, while the same doctrine from the lips of the rector of the academy produces "disgust," if we are to trust his statements. He acknowledges that he added political aims to his teaching; a little later on denies it; later still, in marshalling the famous procession to see the Emperor at the Winter Palace, he narrates that he ordered religious banners, crosses, and holy pictures to be borne in order to impart the aspect of a religious movement, chronicles the initial reverence of the police for these emblems, and seems surprised that the authorities should, later in the day, have been so mean as to suspect the manifestants of guile, even after his imperious epistle to the Emperor and his admission of having advised the presence of women and children as shields. In fact, the history of that famous demonstration and the incidents which led up to and accompanied it, is manifestly not to be accepted from this book as truthful without collating it with accounts from other sources.

The author relates one amusing and characteristic story of Mr. (now Count) Witte's acumen. Zubatoff, the *agent provocateur* of the police, asked Father Gapon to write a certain report for presentation to Mr. Witte, about labor organizations, and as if emanating from the men themselves. Father Gapon, with the aim of making a tool of Zubatoff, agreed, wrote the report, and a delegation of the workmen presented it to Mr. Witte. The latter read the report through, then calmly asked: "Did you write this, gentlemen?" "Yes," they answered. "Then you ought to become journalists," Mr. Witte replied; and with these words he dismissed them. The illustrations of Father Gapon's parents and comfortable village home, and of himself at different periods of his life, add much to the interest of the book.

Euripides and the Spirit of his Dramas. By Paul Decharme. Translated by James Loeb. The Macmillan Co. 1906.

The late Prof. Paul Decharme's 'Euripide et l'Esprit de son Théâtre,' published in 1893, is on the whole the most satisfactory and the most useful book on Euripides that has so far been produced for the general reader. The scholar will, of course, find what is more peculiarly to his address in Wilamowitz-Moellendorff's long and illuminating introduction to his edition of the "Heracles," and there will be those to soothe their souls with Mr. Gilbert Murray's emotional handling of Euripides, regarded as the Greek Ibsen; or Mr. Verrall's airy conjectures may stimulate those who think that the plays are a series of enigmas, in which the poet's meaning is anything you please, only decidedly not what he seems to say. But it is usually a Frenchman who, in the end, takes the middle road, and, neither yielding to caprice nor plunging aside into the dusty depths of speculative philology, draws after him those who yearn for the safe, the settled, and, above all, the comprehensive view.

This study of Euripides does, then, for the Greek dramatist what Couat did for Aristophanes, and Hauvette for Herodotus and Archilochus. This is precisely the sort of book that should be translated for the sake of the many who do not read Greek at all now, whatever they may have done at college, and who might be balked if not put off altogether by the French of the original work, even assuming that, untranslated, it ever comes under their notice. Mr. Loeb has reduced the number

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of pages from 555 to 378, not, of course, by omissions, but by the use of a type which is fully as legible as, though smaller than, that of the original. He has replaced the numerous translations from the plays in French prose by the metrical translations of Mr. Way, whose version of the plays of Euripides is not likely to be surpassed, at any rate in our day, though no doubt Euripides, like Homer, will need to be retranslated every century or so, and readapted to the changing fashions of the English language. As M. Decharme wrote hardly a page without quoting from the plays, the reader profits vastly by Mr. Loeb's judicious inclusion of Mr. Way.

To Decharme's foot-notes the translator has added several which will be of use to the English reader. Mr. Loeb's style is good, and, though it is almost impossible to make such a translation without letting the original idiom show through, Mr. Loeb has escaped the danger of over-literalness, and has lost nothing of the lucidity of Decharme's French. The illustrations are few, as in the original work. The bust of Euripides (from that in the Brunswick Museum) deserves special notice because it has been specially engraved for Mr. Loeb's volume by Kruell. The book, we need not say, is attractively got up. It should be in the hands of all students of the drama.

The England and Holland of the Puritans. By the late Henry Martyn Dexter, D.D., LL.D., and his son, Morton Dexter. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

This detailed and learned work represents effort put forth by three members of the Dexter family, for, besides those whose names stand on the title-page, Dr. Franklin B. Dexter of Yale has had a certain share in the preparation of the text. Most of the materials were collected by Dr. H. M. Dexter, who, having exhausted the sources of information available in America, pursued his studies among the archives of England and Holland. Not only did he gather the data, but nearly completed the first rough draft of the volume. The task of revision has fallen chiefly to Mr. Morton Dexter, who, like his father, supplemented his studies by travel before issuing the narrative in its present form. Every chapter abounds with proofs of exhaustive research, and we doubt whether any resources of real moment have been overlooked by the three writers concerned.

The six books under which the contents are arranged may most fitly be grouped under two main sections. The first of these is occupied with an account of general conditions, embracing also an historical sketch of Scrooby; the second follows the fortunes of the Scrooby congregation from the days when William Brewster first became prominent until the moment when Robinson preached his farewell sermon to the Pilgrim Fathers. For most readers, in New England at least, the second section, with its minute analysis of the Scrooby church members, may well seem the essential part of the work. The first two books, however, are indispensable to a right understanding of the Calvinistic exodus, and contain much rare information digested in systematic form. They are entitled "The England of Our Fathers" and "The Protestantism of Our Fathers." The nature of the environment having first been described, the Scrooby congregation is treated as an organism, whether resident in Notts, in Amsterdam, or in Leyden.

The idea that God sifted a whole nation to send choice grain into the American wilderness, was seldom absent from the consciousness of those who founded the New England colonies; and the same notion seems to have been well grasped by the authors of the present work. The unregenerate condition of England on the eve of the breach with Rome, the incompleteness of the prelatical Reformation, the intolerance of the bishops in their dealing with sectaries—all these are motives which, though not unduly obtruded, never disappear from view. At the close of a chapter entitled "The Shadows in the Picture" may be found the following passage:

"It is not to be inferred that England was given over wholly to rudeness, ignorance, superstition, and even vice. There were many earnest men and women, and doubtless among all classes, of right life, fine character, and ennobling influence. . . . There had been before, and there was to be again, conscientious, determined effort towards a nobler life, alike personal and national. But, nevertheless, it was a time of mental and moral darkness. To such changes from this old order of things as already had begun to be wrought by Nonconformity and Separation, allusion will be made more particularly hereafter."

Here, for example, it is pretty clearly indicated that in Nonconformity or Separation rather than in the Establishment will be found the uplifting, transforming force. Cartwright and Browne, not Parker and Hooker, are looked upon in this volume as the evangelists who possessed the true light.

The topography and annals of Scrooby are discussed with much fulness, and no consideration is left untouched which can help to explain why men like Brewster, Bradford, and Robinson are made to stand out with especial clearness from the plain and sober background of these recalcitrants; but, with the exception of a few leaders, the details of personal development are held in strict subordination to the religious issues around which the lives of the Scrooby people turned. For them the controversy over the nature of the true Church obliterated all professional and selfish interests. The individual withers in the presence of an overshadowing cause.

While the English portion of the subject bulks more largely than the portion which is devoted to Holland, we have found greater novelty in the chapters devoted to the life of the Pilgrims at Amsterdam and Leyden. At this stage the personal element grows more intimate than before, and we are enabled to see how, by a process of natural selection, the emigrants of the *Mayflower* were singled out from the rank and file of the English refugees in the Low Countries. The relations of the exiles with their Dutch co-religionaries are brought out in strong relief, to incidental demonstration of the fact that, even in the seventeenth century, the sympathy kindled by a common Calvinism could not obliterate national prejudices and the business instinct altogether.

Lightness of touch this volume does not possess in an eminent degree, but it contains a large amount of information which has been digested with affectionate and conscientious care.

Burma: Painted and Described by R. Talbot Kelly, R.B.A., F.R.G.S., Commander of the Medjidieh. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

A People at School. By H. Fielding Hall. Macmillan. 1906.

'Burma' is a book of paintings first and text last, as the title indicates. There are seventy-five colored plates, presumably reproductions of Mr. Kelly's pictures, against two hundred and fifty pages of description. But the palm goes to the paintings. They are faithful counterparts of marvellous colors, such as only Burmese forests and costumes can show; delicately blended, despite the gorgeousness of the whole. Only an art critic could essay the task of passing judgment on this, the more fascinating side, of Mr. Kelly's book, which is, in sum, a fit companion to the same author-artist's 'Egypt.' To the lay reader it is a sensuous delight to wander here from one gay scene to another, from the glowing shrine of the Shwe Dagon to the banks of the Irrawaddy, the tangled glade, the street in Nyaung-u, vivid with green, pink, and purple of gown and foliage alike, and so to close the book without reading anything! But this is scarcely fair to the author, who shares honors with the artist. Only, in writing, Mr. Kelly has more competitors and is perhaps not unrivalled. So personally we prefer his colors to his black and white.

Nevertheless, there are passages in the rambling account of personal experiences which attract attention, and one learns much of the Burmese themselves, that happy, lazy folk, whose women are so much better than the men that they have taken to marrying only foreigners, in disgust at the apathy of their own males. The latter sit at home (while the women keep shop) and tend the babies, but still have the hardihood to pray for "health, more money, and lots of children." The description of native drama is interesting. The stage has no scenery, and when the actors are not busy with their part they sit down (still on the stage) and smoke. Mr. Kelly had some excitements in travelling and some amusing adventures. At one station, being unable to buy any food, he hired a policeman to steal it for him, which pacified the natives, who seemed quite content to be robbed first and paid afterwards. The spontaneous ignition of the forests is attributed to the "rubbing together of the silica-coated bamboo-stems as they sway in the breeze." This is certainly the explanation given by the ancient Hindus, who assert that the bamboo ignites itself.

The promise contained in Mr. Hall's 'Soul of a People' is not quite fulfilled in his latest work, but it is difficult to keep the day-school at the same spiritual level as the Sunday-school, or to discuss the body as airily as the soul. We said, in discussing Mr. Hall's former book, that it contained gross historical errors, while it fascinated by style and subject. In 'A People at School' we have a sketch partly biographical (Mr. Hall is a Burmese

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official of twenty years' standing), partly historical, and partly descriptive of present-day conditions. Here and there the author repeats himself, as on pages 29 and 262, but most of the matter is well ordered. It is divided into two parts, the chief divisions being the author's experience and the results of his experience (as interpretation). The "Oriental Mind," he thinks, does not exist, the mental difference between West and East is all humbug; and he is inclined to ascribe Burmese endurance of petty ills and great calamities to the religion, rather than the endurance of their religion to their (Oriental) nature. This is a too sweeping denial, and could easily be disproved if it were worth while. So strong is the influence of this "feminine religion" on the author himself that he talks of a she Fate. Even "Providence" appears as *she:* "Providence has her own ways, she acts," etc. (p. 10). Strangely enough, Mr. Hall, in 'The People at School,' comes out as a veritable Jingo. Buddhism, with its "feminine ideals," prohibits war, but it is well for the Burmese that they were conquered by a better people, who know that formal religion must step back and take a second place, as compared with the religion of Necessity and war. "Religion was made for man, not man for religion." Apparently there will be no religion left in Burma shortly, for the monks and laity are repudiating their own spiritual discipline and—listen, all missionary societies—"there have been no conversions" (to Christianity). "Amongst the Burmese, Christianity makes no headway at all. It has, in fact, in many places actually declined. To the Burman the Christian theory and the Christian priest has [*sic*] no attraction" (p. 255).

Mr. Hall's English is not impeccable. "Never before have we taken over a complete people like we did in Upper Burma, never before have we had to subdue a country as we had it"—is incorrect in more ways than one; but, despite such slips, and even despite graver errors of fact and judgment and the decline in style as compared with the previous volume, there is an honesty in Mr. Hall which makes his studies attractive, and it is always refreshing to get a first-hand impression. Sometimes the author puts historical changes in a single clear statement that could not be surpassed, as when he closes his discussion of the position of the village headman with these words: "He is no longer the representative of the village to the Government, but the representative of Government to the village." His pet idea seems to be that the Burmese people are all children, a young nation, as exemplified by the fact that men and women are almost indistinguishable in dress (!) and figure up to the age of twenty. It will be news to most people that these Burmese Buddhists all eat meat, even the monks—a good sign, in the author's opinion, that they are giving up religion for real life, *à la* the English, who are too virile to forego meat, hunting, and war.

Shelburne Essays. By Paul Elmer More. Third Series. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1906.

In the ceaseless procession of books about books that files and must forever file before the reviewer, there are those, the majority, whose eye, as it were, he had rather not catch, because he knows without a second glance that they will merely irritate him with their superficial æstheticism. But then, again, there are for his consolation the true and tried, the friends who have blood in them while the rest flit like shadows. Such are the collected essays of Mr. Churton Collins, or the late R. H. Hutton, which, though usually in form reviews of some reprint or new edition of an author, are genuine guides, written at leisure, and always adding fresh information or a fresh point of view. The "Shelburne Essays" have proved their right to be placed in the same category. In this the latest volume, Mr. More has collected ten Essays and a "Note" on Don Juan, which are fully up to the standard of the two earlier books. About half of these studies were inspired by the appearance of a new edition of the works of the author discussed, Swinburne, Christina Rossetti, Sterne, Mr. Thomas Wright's 'Correspondence of Cowper,' and the 'Life and Letters of J. Henry Shorthouse.' Others, like that on "The Centenary of Sainte-Beuve," perhaps the best in the volume, are independent essays. But none of them has the characteristics of the mere book review. They all range far beyond the immediate theme.

In the Shorthouse essay, for example, we have no mere description of the obscure career of the writer of 'John Inglesant,' that fascinating and too little read romance of the life of discipline, but a lucid account of the state of the religious parties in England at the time when Shorthouse was slowly composing the work in the hard-earned leisure of his profession as a manufacturing chemist; a born mystic for whom the sunshine on the grass was a sacrament and the whole of life to be envisaged as a divine drama. Two great visionaries, Newman and Shorthouse, if we may bracket them for the moment, ended their days in Birmingham, that most prosaic of modern cities. But the incongruity of this setting surprises the more in the novelist's case, because he had known no other, and never even visited the Italy of which he gives so vivid an impression in 'John Inglesant.' Shorthouse was a Neo-Platonist in soul, made of the same stuff as Plotinus, a curious and isolated figure that defied its environment. Mr. More does not speak of a paper contributed to *Macmillan's Magazine* after he had become "John Inglesant" to the English world of letters, but it is interesting because it shows the preoccupation of the man. The paper was called "The Humorous in Literature," and in it Shorthouse maintained that for humor, since it touches the deepest springs of human nature, one must necessarily turn to the Gospels, to such a parable as the Prodigal Son, which will furnish the most striking transitions from joy to sorrow and back to joy. This was indeed a visionary's conception of humor.

The last essay in the volume is purely philosophical, and was written some years ago, we are told, by Mr. More's brother. It is an interesting historical sketch of that attempt to find a resting-place in the flux of things which has occupied all philosophers and many scientific men since the day of Heracleitus of Ephesus. It is aimed, like M. Poincaré's 'La Valeur de la Science' or his 'La Science et l'Hypothèse,' at the intelligent reader who is not an expert though his general training gives him a right to judge—a type of mind first recognized and respected by Aristotle. In his essay on Swinburne Mr. More has analyzed acutely the causes of the weariness, chiefly of the ear, that besets in the end the most ardent of Swinburne's admirers—provided, of course, that he has an ear to be wearied.

International Law; A Treatise. By L. Oppenheim. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

These volumes, the author modestly says in his preface, are intended to be an elementary treatise for beginners in International Law. The author has taught the subject, both on the Continent, as a Continental, and in England—a rare qualification—and we are inclined to think that others than beginners will find his survey of the field useful. The lists of treatises and monographs printed at the commencement of each topic give a bibliography probably not accessible in any other English treatise. The only recent work with which it can be compared is Hall's 'International Law,' a book not elementary, and, from want of proper editing since the author's death, not quite as useful as formerly.

Of course, any book designed as a compendium of International Law must, in the main, be a repetition of what is to be found in other books. Even the general basis of treatment—Questions Arising in a State of Peace, Questions Arising or Resulting in a State of War, Neutrality, Prize—is essentially fixed. Mr. Oppenheim, however, has managed to give a new turn to the enquiry, by making a separate title, though too short a one, of the Responsibility of States. The idea of responsibility runs through the whole subject, but generally this is rather assumed than explicitly taught. It is an idea which might be found capable of great development in aid of exposition.

The author has a system which underlies his analysis; the best and most important part of his system is his rule of giving his readers the law as it is, and not as it ought to be. This, combined with his natural international impartiality, makes his book an extremely fair and rational one. The national or patriotic bias which runs through most writing on this subject, he has escaped. He seems even capable of keeping the scales balanced as between neutrals and belligerents. The "three rules" of the Treaty of Washington, though not yet International Law, he recognizes as embodying an important principle, while on the other hand he inclines to think that the *Bundesrath* case in the South African war has settled the rule that the old doctrine of continuous voyage can be applied to contraband, though shipped from one neutral port to another; from the Russo-Japanese war he thinks the rule established that belligerent men-of-war seeking asylum in neutral ports must be dismantled and detained with their crews until the termination of the war, if more than a temporary asylum is requisite. The *Reshitelni* cutting-out case, about which so much has been written, he dismisses in a few words

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as an obvious violation of neutral territory.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addison's Essays. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Bibliography of the Sanskrit Drama. Edited by Montgomery Schuyler. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Cambridge Modern History. Planned by Lord Acton. Vol. IX.: Napoleon. Macmillan Co. $4 net.
Downey, Edmund. Charles Lever: His Life and his Letters. 2 vols. Scribners. $5 net.
Ewald, Carl. My Little Boy. Translated by Alexander T. De Mattos. Scribners. $1 net.
Fanshawe, Reginald. Corydon: An Elegy. Henry Frowde. 4s. 6d. net.
Hill, Janet McKenzie. The Up-to-Date Waitress. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Holyoake, George Jacob. The History of Co-operation. 2 vols. Appleton. $5 net.
Karasowski, Moritz. Frederic Chopin: His Life and Letters. 2 vols. Imported by Scribners.
Lane, Elinor Macartney. All for the Love of a Lady. Appleton. $1.25.
Mansion, J. E. First-Year French. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Mitchell, S. Weir. A Diplomatic Adventure. Century Co. $1.
Palmer, Frederick. Lucy of the Stars. Scribners. $1.50.
Reynolds, John S. Reconstruction in South Carolina. Columbia, S. C.: State Company.
Richards, Thomas C. Samuel J. Mills. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25 net.
Sabatier, Paul. Disestablishment in France. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Sewell, Cornelius V. V. Common Sense Gardens. The Grafton Press. $2 net.
Storm's Im Sonnenschein. Edited by G. L. Swiggett. American Book Co.
Taylor, Edward Robeson. Into the Light. San Francisco: The Stanley-Taylor Co. $1.25 net.
Tracy, Wm. P. Old Catholic Maryland: Swedesboro, N. J.: St. Joseph's Rectory.
Vance, Louis Joseph. The Private War. Appleton. $1.50.
Von Suttner, Bertha. "Ground Arms!" Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Walker, Dawson. The Gift of Tongues. Imported by Scribners. $1.75 net.
Webster's Standard Pocket Dictionary. Compiled by A. B. Chambers. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Weltwirtschaft. Edited by E. von Halle. I. Teil. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Williams, H. Noel. Later Queens of the French Stage. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Windle, Bertram C. A. The Wessex of Thomas Hardy. John Lane Co.
Wisconsin Historical Collections. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. XVII. Madison: Published by the Society.
Young O'Briens. John Lane Co.

Henry Holt and Company have just published a delightful, humorous novel by *Sydney Preston*, author of "*The Abandoned Farmer*," entitled ON COMMON GROUND. An idyll in both treatment and subject, it is the story of a gentle bachelor who retires to a small farm to raise chickens. The chickens wander into a neighbor's garden and the idyll begins. It is all told with Mr. Preston's characteristic charm and humor. $1.50.

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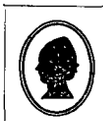
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